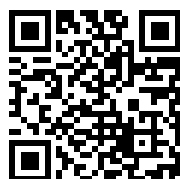

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T D H

GREAT BRITAIN

TRADE

REPORT

ON

AGENCIES AND METHODS FOR DEALING

WITH THE

UNEMPLOYED.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.



LONDON:

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1893.

[C.—7182.]

TO THE SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF TRADE

SIR,

I HAVE the honour to submit the accompanying report by the Commissioner for Labour on the methods and agencies for dealing with the unemployed.

The preparation of this report and the collection of materials for it have occupied a good deal of the time of the Department during the past few months. But the importance of the inquiry which you directed has appeared even greater during its progress than it was thought to be at first, there being no work in existence which reviews the subject in its various aspects, and points out the scope and nature of the different methods and agencies that have been or are being tried for dealing with the unemployed. The present comprehensive summary teaches various lessons which are embodied in the report itself, and admirably summarised in its concluding pages.

The report speaks for itself, and it would be unsuitable for me to comment upon it. But I desire to call special attention to two points in it. The first is the description of what is meant by the phrase "unemployed" itself. When statistics as to "unemployed" are called for, the difficulty is immediately encountered of how to define the word and give instructions to the clerks and collectors of the data who are to carry out the work, while in the study of alleged statistics and statements of numbers of the unemployed one is constantly put in doubt as to what the facts really are by the neglect of those who make the statements to define their terms and describe the methods by which the statements are arrived at. It is to be hoped that after this report more care and attention will be given to these points in all discussions on the subject. The distinctions between the want of employment of those who are more or less chronically unemployed, the want of employment at certain times in certain trades, owing to seasonal and other causes, though there is no surplus labour in these trades, and the want of employment which is really exceptional, besides others

stated in the report, are, in any case of obvious importance, and show that the phrase "unemployed" is a complex and not a simple term, and that the subject cannot be treated at all without the utmost care.

The second point to which I desire to call attention, is the promise in the report, to proceed with an inquiry as to irregularity of employment, which is one of the primary causes of that congestion of the "unemployed" which makes it necessary to have methods and agencies for dealing with them. The difficulties of a complete remedy for the mischief by dealing with it after it has been produced by any or all of the methods and agencies that have been tried, being recognised, the study of the causes which lead to irregularity of employment becomes the more important. It may not be possible to suggest legislative or other remedies for irregularity of employment as the result of this study; but the information, if collected and presented to the public in a manner resembling that of the present report, will undoubtedly be most useful. It is, of course, impossible to say beforehand how long the preparation of such a report will take, and probably more than one report will be necessary; but the zeal and energy with which the present report has been got out are the best proof that the matter will be proceeded with as quickly as the other business of the Department will permit.

I have, &c.

R. GIFFEN.

Commercial, Labour, and Statistical
Departments, Board of Trade,
September, 1893.

R E P O R T.

To the CONTROLLER-GENERAL of the COMMERCIAL, LABOUR, AND
STATISTICAL DEPARTMENTS of the BOARD OF TRADE.

SIR,

I HAVE the honour to present to you the accompanying Memorandum on agencies and methods for dealing with the unemployed, which has been prepared in accordance with instructions received from the Board of Trade. In the preparation of this Memorandum I have received much assistance from the Labour Correspondents of the Board of Trade and other members of the staff of the Department, and also from many of the local correspondents of the Department in various parts of the country, and others. In particular, Mr. Burnett and Mr. Drummond have largely contributed to the section dealing with the work of Trade Societies; Mr. Dent has collected much of the information with regard to Labour Bureaux and Municipal and other Relief works, and Miss Collet has dealt, among other subjects, with agencies specially connected with women and girls.

The Memorandum also includes a special report made to the Labour Department by Professor Mavor, of Toronto University, on Labour Colonies on the Continent.

I am,
Your obedient Servant,
(Signed) H. LLEWELLYN SMITH,
Commissioner for Labour.

Labour Department,
Board of Trade,
18th September 1893.

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MEMORANDUM.

PART I.—INTRODUCTORY.

(i.)—SCOPE AND PLAN OF THE REPORT.

The following report is the result of an inquiry undertaken by the Labour Department of the Board of Trade in the course of carrying out the programme set forth in the Memorandum on the work of the Department laid before the House of Commons on April 28th, 1893.

Among the subjects there enumerated as likely to call for special inquiries on the part of the Department, two had reference to questions of irregularity of employment and the evils caused thereby; *i.e.*, one to the extent and causes of such irregularity, and the other to efforts made in various ways to deal with distress and other evils resulting from want of work.

It is with the latter subject alone that the present report deals. The question of the causes or extent of want of employment, which will form the subject of future reports, is here left untouched, except in so far as some knowledge on these points is necessary in order to discriminate among various schemes for the relief of the unemployed.

The main purpose of the following pages is to give in broad outline an account of the work of the chief agencies, both permanent and temporary, which have been seeking of late to deal with various aspects of the problems arising out of want of employment. Its aim is not to be exhaustive, either in the enumeration of all the schemes or in the description given of the work of each. The object is rather to give enough information with regard to each class of agency to enable a sound judgment to be formed as to the aims which it sets before itself and the methods which it pursues.

This purpose being kept in view, some institutions of value and importance may doubtless have been passed over lightly, while others which possess less intrinsic value, but which for the purposes of this report present features of special interest, may have been more fully described. Some institutions have, no doubt, escaped notice altogether. It is desirable, therefore, that it should be understood at the beginning that the report makes no claim to contain a full list, much less a full description, of all agencies dealing with the unemployed, and that references to specific schemes are, as a rule, made with a view of illustrating some principle or mode of action, and are not to be regarded as detailed reports on the proceedings of the various institutions concerned.

With regard to the plan of the report, it has appeared to the Department that what is wanted, in order to give useful guidance to the public in the matter of the relief of the unemployed, is not so much a complete description of one particular group of institutions as a wide survey of many classes of agencies, each of which is attempting to touch the question at some particular point, often without much reference to work simultaneously carried on by other agencies. There may be some danger that those who concentrate attention on one out of many classes of schemes may lose somewhat the sense of proportion, and look to that particular scheme to afford a single sovereign remedy for what is in reality a multiform and complex disease.

The aim, therefore, which the present inquiry has had in view has been to analyse and break up into their elements the congeries of industrial and social problems which are lumped together in common language as the "problem of the unemployed," to survey broadly the ground covered by existing agencies professing to deal with various aspects of this problem, to state clearly the principles underlying their efforts and the objects at which they aim, to assign so far as may be the precise functions which each may perform and the relation in which its work stands to other efforts, and, finally, to deduce from this analysis any general conclusions which may be drawn from previous experiments as to the lines along which future efforts may proceed with the least chance of failure.

This is a task which only needs to be stated for its magnitude and difficulties to be realised, and it would be presumptuous to claim that the present report does more than advance a step towards its accomplishment, especially in view of the fact that the inquiry has been confined within very narrow limits of time, in order not to be too late to be of use to local authorities and others during the coming winter.

Following the plan described above, an attempt is made in this section of the report to analyse the nature of the problem, and to attach a definite meaning to the term "unemployed," or at least to classify the different meanings in which the word is ordinarily used, and the main causes to which so-called "want of employment" may be due.

This is followed by a general classification of the various groups of agencies which attempt to deal with the matter in one way or another.

Subsequent sections of the report discuss in turn those agencies, both temporary and permanent, for assisting the unemployed, which have been at work in the United Kingdom during the past year, including a detailed account of the operations of trade societies with regard to their unemployed members, of recent attempts by local authorities to provide work for the unemployed, of labour bureaux and of various organisations dealing with distress.

So far the report deals with schemes now or recently at work in the United Kingdom. In order, however, that these experiments should be seen in their true relation to the whole problem, it is necessary to go outside these limits and include some notice of important schemes carried out or attempted in other countries or at other times. Accordingly, the next section of the report is occupied with accounts of selected schemes for the benefit of the unemployed actually at work in various foreign countries, including, besides an account of labour bureaux in certain countries, a special report made to the department by Professor Mavor, of Toronto University, on the labour colonies in Germany, Holland, Belgium, and France, based on personal investigation in those countries.

The next section gives an account of a few of the most important historical examples of schemes of work for the unemployed from which useful lessons may be learned, including a description of parish employment under the old Poor Law, reprinted from the report of the Poor Law Commission of 1834, and accounts of the French National Works of 1848, and of the Lancashire relief works during the Cotton Famine of 1861-4.

A final section is added giving briefly some of the conclusions to which the evidence adduced in the body of the report appears to point.

(ii.)—MEANING AND CLASSIFICATION OF WANT OF EMPLOYMENT.

The word "unemployed," though at first sight it may appear specific enough, is really an ambiguous term. Scarcely any two writers use it in the same sense, and part at least of the present confusion of ideas as to the possibility and methods of dealing with the evils arising from want of employment, may be traced to the vagueness which attaches to the meaning of the word itself.

The "unemployed," for the purposes of a Trade Union which grants unemployed benefit, are the members who, from causes other than their own misconduct or choice, have not been earning wages for a certain number of days. They need not be in any way a *surplus*, in the sense that the labour market would be in a better condition for their total removal. They do not for the most part constitute an army of men who need to be dealt with as a whole. They are merely the shifting margin who for the time being are out of a job. This definition, though good for purposes of out-of-work benefit, is plainly not generally applicable to all industries. With miners and shoemakers, for example, there might be a real surplus of labour (*i.e.*, there might not be enough work to give anything like full employment to all those seeking work in the trade), and yet very few might be out of

work altogether. The output of mines is contracted, as a rule, rather by the men working fewer days a week than by the discharge of bodies of colliers, though the latter also happens in periods of depression. Boot and shoe operatives working by the piece are very seldom wholly out of a situation, though work may be very short. A casual dock labourer, whose engagement is practically an hourly one can very seldom be said to be entirely out of work. Though he failed to get a job yesterday, he stands a chance of being taken on to-day. It is interesting to see the view which the less regularly employed of this class take of their own situation as regards employment. Some of the applicants to the Mansion House Committee (*see* p. 248) described themselves as having been out of work for one, two or more years, clearly regarding their normal condition since losing their last regular situation as "unemployed," though from time to time they had picked up casual work. Others dated their want of employment from the last day on which they earned wages.

There is a whole class of men who subsist on casual labour and odd jobs, who might at any given time be counted with almost equal appropriateness as employed or unemployed. They might at any time swell the numbers at an unemployed meeting, and yet many of them may be getting as much work as with their inclinations and habits they have the will or capacity to perform. One test which might be suggested is, whether they or any of them are industrially superfluous. As Mr. Charles Booth says, "The total number of the superfluous is the true measure of the unemployed." But this is a test which is very hard to apply, and it cannot be applied at any given date, but only over a given and sufficiently long period of time. The recent reorganisation, or, as it has been called, the "decasualisation," of labour at the London Docks has, for the first time, tended to separate out the real "unemployed" and to give some notion of their numbers. They existed before, however, though each member obtained a certain insufficient share of work.

Or, again, we may consider seasonal trades with short period engagements like the Building Trades. A certain amount of time may be lost in each year by a bricklayer or carpenter by mere "leakage" between the end of one job and the beginning of another, without supposing the existence of any superfluous body of men.

In the same trades a certain amount of time will be lost almost every year during frost. Are the men thus thrown out of work really "unemployed"? The loss of time may be considered as one of the ordinary trade risks; it recurs more or less every year; it may be supposed to be discounted in the rates of pay earned by members of these trades when fully at work. The bricklayers idle during frost are in no sense "superfluous," if the whole year be taken as a unit; were they emigrated or planted in farm colonies or otherwise lifted permanently off the labour market, the building trades would presently suffer from

a deficiency of men. Nor are they necessarily insufficiently employed. There may be work enough for all, but the trade is such that the work it offers has to be concentrated in certain parts of the year.

To carry the point further, there are trades such as shipbuilding which under the conditions of modern industry have periods of inflation and depression. In a period of contraction like the present there are many men who are out of work. They are industrially "superfluous," if so short a period as a year be taken as the unit, but over a period of seven years—which for shipbuilding appears to be about the period of the cycle—they are necessary, and were they lifted off the labour market in slack years there would not be enough men to execute the work when trade revived. Yet it seems a strain on ordinary language to refuse to these men during slack years the title of unemployed, especially as the fluctuations as a matter of fact are not generally foreseen or provided for.

It becomes clear then that even after ruling out those who through ordinary and well understood causes are out of work, but who during the year get a full share of employment, as not belonging to the genuinely "unemployed" class, the term still remains ambiguous, meaning sometimes the really superfluous body of men in a trade, and sometimes that section of the non-superfluous or necessary men who are not earning wages, through seasonal or other contractions of employment which could not reasonably have been foreseen.

Corresponding to these two conceptions emerge the two sets of plans for meeting the evil: viz., that of permanently removing the unemployed from the labour market, and that of temporarily assisting them to tide over their difficulties till their industry revives. Mixed up with plans like these is often a third idea,—that of reclaiming by moral or other influences the industrial "sediment" which lies below the real body of self-supporting labour, and is unemployed because it is entirely or nearly economically worthless. The last mentioned is essentially a social rather than an industrial problem, though in practice it is found inevitably to confront those who attempt to deal with the unemployed on industrial lines.

Summarizing the results of this analysis, we may say that the term "unemployed" is used in four distinct senses, though of course the classes of persons corresponding to each definition overlap to a greater or less extent.

(1.) Those whose engagements being for short periods have terminated their last engagement on the conclusion of a job and have not yet entered on another.

(2.) Those who belong to trades in which the volume of work fluctuates, and who, though they may obtain a full share during each year of the work afforded by their industry, are not at the given time able to get work at their trade.

(3.) Those members of various trades who are economically superfluous, because there is not enough work in those trades to furnish a fair amount to all who try to earn a livelihood at them.

(4.) Those who cannot get work because they are below the standard of efficiency usual in their trades, or because their personal defects are such that no one will employ them.

It is, however, impossible to draw the line between those classed under the fourth heading and those who should rather be termed insufficiently or casually employed. With respect also to the third class, it is to be noted that the proportion of superfluous labour in any trade is not an *absolute* but a *relative* quantity; *i.e.*, it depends on the standard of efficiency and of remuneration current in that trade. Men whom no one will employ at 9d. an hour might get 6d., and the higher the organisation of any trade in which time-wages prevail the more powerful will be the tendency for the "unfit" to sink out of employment altogether.

If, however, it is difficult to attach any precise meaning to the term "unemployed," which shall be applicable to all trades and industries, and if no sharp dividing line can be drawn between those out of work and those whose employment is casual and insufficient, it may at least be said that, so far as the existence of unemployed persons offers any social problem for solution, the essence of the problem consists in the fact that the relation between the supply and demand for any particular kind of labour in any particular place is a fluctuating one.

(1.) First, there are fluctuations due to the change of season; as in the building trades, where much outdoor work cannot be so well carried on in frosty weather, and the demand for labour is therefore considerably smaller in the winter than in the summer; or the clothing trades, in which demand is briskest in the spring.

(2.) Secondly, there are yearly fluctuations dependent on seasonal changes in other countries with which foreign trade is carried on, *e.g.*, the work of timber porters at the docks, which nearly ceases in the months following the freezing of the Baltic and the St. Lawrence.

(3.) There are regular fluctuations with a period less than a year, *e.g.*, the work of dock and warehouse labourers engaged in the import of wool, whose work is subject to very large fluctuations with about six busy and six slack seasons in the course of each year, corresponding to the periodic wool sales, and the intervals between them; or the work of agricultural labourers, which has two busy seasons, at the times of hay and corn harvesting, with a slack season in winter.

(4.) Some trades are subject to more or less regular fluctuations with a period greater than a year. These "cyclical" variations, which correspond to the alternate periods of trade prosperity and depression, affect more or less all the staple industries of the country, though not simultaneously; but they

appear to show themselves with concentrated force, in this country at least, in the industries concerned with the production of ships and machinery, or the extraction of coal and iron.

(5.) There are fluctuations of an irregular kind dependent on changes of fashion in this country or abroad. Thus the relative prosperity of industries connected with various branches of worsted, woollen, silk, cotton, and other textile fabrics, which to a greater or less extent are inter-changeable and are all dependent on fashions, is continually changing.

(6.) There are local fluctuations, caused by the shifting of seats of industry from one centre to another, which, though not affecting the total demand for labour throughout the whole of a given industry, affect temporarily the margin of unemployed among those engaged in that industry in a given place. The distress among London shipwrights, caused by the shifting of ship-building from the Thames to the Clyde and Tyne some years ago, is a conspicuous example of the effects of this kind of fluctuation.

(7.) There are temporary changes in the field of employment, caused by the transformation of the processes by which industries are carried on; which, while opening up new avenues for employment of certain classes of labour, displace other classes who may be unemployed for some time before being absorbed into fresh occupations. The change from hand-loom to power-loom weaving, from hand-combing to machine-combing, and from hand-made nails to machine-made nails, are conspicuous cases of transformations of this kind, which are taking place continually on a greater or less scale, with every fresh improvement of machinery.

Or, without any change of process, a reorganisation of labour, such as the replacement of casual by permanent men, may crush out a certain percentage of workers who formerly got some share of irregular employment, and who after the change are dispensed with altogether, forming an unemployed "residuum." Such a crushing-out process has been going on recently at some of the London docks, and one of the most instructive of recent experiments in dealing with the unemployed, which is described in this report, was concerned with members of the class of labourers thus displaced.

(8.) Lastly, the state of employment may be violently disturbed by extraordinary and totally unexpected occurrences, such as the American Civil War, which caused the Lancashire Cotton Famine.

These being a few of the principal heads under which the ultimate causes of want of employment may be classified, corresponding variations follow in the possible remedies, if any, which are suited to the various classes of cases. Before, however, passing on to consider these remedies, it is to be noted that, taken as a whole, the unemployed margin, however caused, will always consist of the least efficient workers in the community at the given time and place. Among them, from accidental causes,

there may be a certain number of first-rate workmen, but it is certain that the best 1,000 of the unemployed members of a given group of trades at any given time are less efficient, whether from physical, moral, or intellectual defects, than the worst 1,000 who are in actual employment at the same time. The worst workmen are, as a rule, discharged first and taken on last. In many cases, however, as, for example, in the seasonal and "cyclical" trades, before referred to, there is no marked change of the level of efficiency between those in work and those out of work, who shade into one another by imperceptible gradations. In other cases, such as that of the "decasualisation" of the docks, the displaced "unemployed" may, to a large extent, be an inefficient "residuum" for whom the mere offer of work would not in most cases be a remedy.

Speaking broadly, the line of cleavage, so far as the possibility of effective treatment is concerned, is between the group of unemployed whose reduced physical condition is mainly a result of the loss of work through industrial causes, and those with whom the loss of work is mainly the result of defective personal qualities.

One of the most serious features of the situation is the fact that want of employment and casual employment have themselves a powerful tendency to produce inefficiency, both by the physical deterioration due to insufficient nourishment and the moral deterioration which often results from want of regular work.

(iii.)—GENERAL CLASSIFICATION OF AGENCIES DEALING WITH THE UNEMPLOYED.

Following the classification given in the last section of the different meanings of the term "unemployed," the agencies professing to deal with want of employment divide themselves naturally into several corresponding classes.

First, there is the group of agencies of which the trade societies are the most widespread and conspicuous examples, which deal mainly with the efficient unemployed members of various trades, who at any given time under ordinary circumstances are out of a job. These agencies assist such unemployed workmen in a great variety of ways. Thus, many important trade societies pay their members a weekly out-of-work allowance; almost all of them give assistance to their members in their search for work; while some, by regulating overtime, dividing up work equally, or by other measures, attempt to mitigate the effects of great fluctuations in the labour market. It is impossible to get any clear idea of the way in which a proposed new agency for dealing with the unemployed would work, without taking into account the existing

network of agencies supplied by the trade societies, and accordingly a good deal of space is given in the early part of this report to a description of their modes of action, and of the kindred though more limited work of Friendly Societies.

To this class of agencies also belong labour bureaux, especially those which employ some system of selecting applicants for registration. Registries for domestic servants and members of other special classes of industries also come under the same head, together with the employment agency supplied by the advertisement columns of the newspapers.

Secondly, there is the group of agencies which attempt to deal with those who are unemployed owing to trade fluctuations of a more or less exceptional character. These, again, naturally divide themselves into permanent and temporary institutions. Among the permanent agencies the most prominent is, of course, the Poor Law. There are several features, however, which mark off the system of poor relief sharply from the other schemes for dealing with distress arising from want of employment which form the main subject matter of the present report. In the first place the Poor Law deals not with want of employment as such, but with destitution from whatever cause it may arise. It may be that such destitution is the result of irregularity of work, or it may be that it has sprung from one or more of a hundred other causes. But it is not the fact that a man is unemployed, but the fact that he is destitute that gives him a right to relief.

Moreover, under the present Poor Law, as contrasted with such schemes as municipal relief works, there is, and can be no payment for work done in the shape of wages, although work may be imposed as a test of the reality of destitution. A man with a family and a man without a family will be probably relieved in different degrees, though there is no difference in the amount of test work performed. A third feature of the Poor Law is that in some way and subject to some conditions the guardians are bound to relieve all destitute applicants. They are not like a voluntary committee, which may discriminate and pass on rejected cases elsewhere. They are not like local authorities, whose superintendent or surveyor may pick and choose the most promising applicants and put them on municipal work. Whatever be the causes of a man's destitution, if he applies for relief to the guardians, relief must as a rule be given.

The vast system of Poor Law administration which is based on these principles lies in the main outside the scope of this report though in view of its importance a short memorandum is inserted describing in general terms the powers of guardians with regard to the able-bodied unemployed. This memorandum describes the present state of the law, but if the subject be looked at historically it will be seen that before the reform of the Poor Law in 1834 a great number of experiments were made in the direction of providing employment for the poor out of the rates. The provisions of the Poor Law of 1601, relating to the employment of the able-bodied, the establishment of "Houses

of Industry" and workhouses in the 17th and 18th centuries, the employment of paupers by the parish in out-of-door occupations, the compulsion exercised by the parish on private persons to give them employment, and the establishment in some districts of parish farms worked by pauper labour, are all matters of more than mere historical interest, in view of the strong tendency to experiment afresh along the lines of former unsuccessful attempts, under the impression that an entirely new departure is being made. It is not possible in the present report to do more than very briefly refer to historical matters of this kind, but at p. 357 an extract is reprinted from the chapter in the famous report of the Royal Commission on the Poor Law, of 1834, which deals with the question of parish employment and the abuses which arose therefrom.

Next to the Poor Law come various voluntary agencies, of which the Charity Organisation Society and its affiliated associations are the most highly developed, dealing permanently with the relief of distress, including that arising from exceptional want of employment. The Charity Organisation Society has made a special study of the question of modes of relief, and the policy pursued by this society both with regard to nominal and exceptional want of employment is described on p. 146.

Permanent agencies for the provision of work for the unemployed, whether in labour colonies or in special workshops, do not exist to any great extent in the United Kingdom, though schemes and proposals for their foundation are continually being formulated. Particulars, however, are given on p. 160, of the scheme carried out by the social wing of the Salvation Army, which includes a labour bureau, town workshops, and a farm colony. Some account of similar work done by certain other agencies is also given.

The labour colony system can, however, be best studied in certain foreign countries where it has assumed much larger dimensions than in the United Kingdom, and the present position of the labour colonies of Germany, Holland, Belgium, and France is, therefore, described in detail in Professor Mayor's report, which is included in the present volume. It will be gathered from that report that whatever be the object of these colonies the great bulk of the material with which they deal consists not of efficient workmen out of work, but of tramps, ex-prisoners, and others whose distress is caused by personal defects. They are not colonies of unemployed so much as receptacles for social wreckage.

Turning to temporary agencies, the most important from the point of view of this report are the schemes for providing temporary employment for the unemployed by municipalities or voluntary agencies. Such provision in times of exceptional distress is no new thing, and the schemes carried out during the past winter, of which an account is given on p. 185, are by no means the most important experiments in this direction which

have been made. It is no part of the function of this report to trace in detail the attempts which have been made from time to time to provide work for the unemployed through the agency of local authorities. Two conspicuous examples, however, of relief works on a large scale, one in England and one in France, designed to meet special emergencies, have been thought of sufficient interest to deserve separate description. Though the circumstances, both of the Paris so-called "National Workshops" and of the Cotton Famine Relief Works, were highly exceptional, some light is thrown, by a study of them, on the difficulties attending all projects of the kind.

Lastly, we have agencies which distinctly aim at the assistance of particular classes of persons who, for various reasons, find special difficulty in obtaining situations.

Such are the associations for finding employment for discharged soldiers, the discharged prisoners' aid societies, &c. A brief sketch of the work of some of these societies is given on pp. 135 and 141. It is to be remembered that many of the agencies already enumerated, which were established with a view to dealing with ordinary out-of-work persons, really deal in practice mainly with those whose position is due to defective personal qualities.

It will be seen, for example, that the relief works established by local authorities last winter were in many cases flooded with those whose want of work could not fairly be attributed to industrial causes alone.

While trade societies act to a large extent as labour bureaux for their members, employers' associations do not, as a rule, include within their functions the organisation of the supply of labour. Recently, however, chiefly in connexion with the shipping trade, labour exchanges have been organised by ship-owners and other employers at several ports. Registry offices for seamen are conducted by the "Shipping Federation," those for shore labourers having the title of the "British Labour Exchange." These exchanges have been established in the course of the prolonged contest between the Shipping Federation and certain labour organisations, and their object is to break down the alleged monopoly of these unions in the supply of waterside labour by the establishment of local reserves of "free labourers." They exact a pledge from those registered, to work amicably with non-unionists and unionists alike. Registries of this kind are, therefore, rather to be regarded as a feature of an industrial conflict than as an agency in dealing with the unemployed, except in so far as they give a chance of sharing what employment is to be had to a body of men who, either through disinclination or inability to join a union, might otherwise have remained without work.

All the above societies deal mainly with men already engaged in some trade, industry, or occupation who have in some way lost a situation and seek to regain one. A somewhat different

class of institutions exists for the purpose of finding employment in the first instance for boys and girls on leaving school. Many training institutions and technical and other schools act to a considerable extent as agencies for furnishing employers with suitable apprentices and learners. Before the general breakdown of the apprenticeship system, bequests were common for the purpose of apprenticing poor children, and many of these still exist, though they are becoming obsolete in most occupations.

The Jewish Board of Guardians does a considerable amount of work in the direction of apprenticing children. Similarly the workhouse authorities find situations for pauper children trained in their schools, and voluntary societies, such as the "Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servants," undertake the work of placing girls from workhouse schools and elsewhere in domestic service.

The problem of finding employment in the first place for boys and girls is altogether different from that of assisting adults in their search for work. It is intimately connected with the questions of general and technical training and of children's employment and apprenticeship. It will be, therefore, best discussed in connexion with the inquiry undertaken by the Department into various aspects of children's employment.

All mention of the question might be omitted here, but for the fact that many of the bureaux and other employment agencies enumerated above do not exclude boys and girls from their registers. Indeed, the statistics given on p. 116 show that an appreciable part of the work of several of the bureaux consists in the placing of children in permanent or temporary situations.

We may now proceed to consider in detail the work of the various agencies classified above.

*PART II.—PERMANENT AGENCIES DEALING WITH
THE UNEMPLOYED.*

**(i.)—THE ACTION OF TRADE SOCIETIES IN RELATION
TO THEIR UNEMPLOYED MEMBERS.**

(a.) GENERAL SUMMARY.

It is desirable for several reasons to begin an account of agencies for the assistance and relief of the unemployed by a description of the work carried on in this direction by trade societies. In the first place these societies, when well managed, are the most extensive and effective agencies at present dealing with the problem, so far at least as regards their own members. A self-governing association composed exclusively of members of a particular trade, with branches in all the most important centres of industry, has means of knowing the changes in the state of the labour market and the fluctuations in the trade in which its members are engaged, such as are open to no other individuals or associations. It should, therefore, be able to assist its members in their search for work by means which no other agency could attempt; and the financial interest of all its contributing members in husbanding its funds offers some stimulus to the members of the society both to endeavour to find situations for their unemployed fellow members, and to watch that the society is not being defrauded by idlers, who draw the out-of-work pay without genuinely seeking for employment. The power of an organisation to assist the unemployed, without producing greater evils than it removes, depends largely not only on the knowledge which it possesses of the conditions of each case and of the state of employment in each district, but on the completeness of the hold which it has over the individuals relieved. A trade society which gives many forms of benefit to its members has this hold in the highest degree, since in extreme cases fraud or "malingering" may be punished by expulsion; and though this penalty is not often inflicted, the possibility of it, and the fear of public opinion within the society, must operate as a wholesome check on deception. Such a society is, therefore, able to relieve its unemployed by weekly allowances without the danger which is incurred by organisations attempting to follow the same course without the same knowledge and without the same means of checking imposture. This point must be borne in mind in comparing the policy of trade societies with that of the Charity Organisation Society or the Poor Law with respect to grants of money to the unemployed.

The strong position which is occupied by trade societies with respect to their members has enabled them to experiment freely in modes of dealing with their unemployed

members, and the various methods at present adopted, even if far from perfect, are worthy of careful study as embodying the net result of many years of experience. It may be said generally that where they have failed, other agencies are not likely to succeed. For example, the growing discountenance with which, in many societies, travelling benefit is coming to be regarded, seems a sufficient proof of the impracticability at the present day of such a form of assistance to the unemployed on the part of an ordinary relief organisation.

The differing conditions under which various groups of trades are carried on, and the differing degrees of completeness of the organisations in those trades, naturally give rise to differences in the modes adopted by them with regard to the unemployed. In the account given below, the chief trade societies are grouped so as to bring out this point more clearly. This detailed description, however, should be prefaced by a few remarks summarising briefly the work and policy of the societies with regard to various modes of action.

Unemployed Benefit.—A large number of trade unions, including several of the most important societies, support their unemployed members during their search for work by payment of a weekly allowance termed “unemployed benefit.” A table is given in the appendix showing details with regard to the extent to which this mode of assisting the unemployed prevails, and the various conditions under which the benefit is given. From that table it appears that during 1891 (the last year for which the statistics are complete) 202 societies, including 682,025 members, distributed “unemployed benefit” amounting in the aggregate to 222,088*l.* among their unemployed members. The societies differ greatly among themselves as regards the weekly amount of out-of-work payment per member. As a rule the payment is graduated on a descending scale; as, for example, in the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, which pays 10*s.* a week for the first 12 weeks and 6*s.* a week for an additional 12 weeks. This is about an average scale, but some societies begin with a payment as high as 18*s.* (as in the London Coach Makers’ Trade Union), while in some of the unions connected with the Textile Trade the initial payment is as low as 3*s.* 6*d.* a week. As a rule it is found that too high a scale of out-of-work payment tends to encourage idlers in spite of all the vigilance which can be exercised by the society. Some unions (*e.g.*, the Brassworkers and the Ironfounders) deduct the members’ weekly contributions from the out-of-work allowances; others (as the Amalgamated Engineers) remit such contributions while the member is unemployed; others (*e.g.*, the Typographical Association), only exact part of the usual contributions from those out of work. As a rule a certain period of previous membership is required before a member is entitled to the allowance, but this period varies, as will be seen, in different unions. The claimant has

usually to sign a "vacant book" at specified intervals in order to claim unemployed benefit, and he is bound to seek for work while in receipt of it, and to take an eligible situation if offered to him. Those who have lost work from their own fault are not as a rule entitled to benefit, but this rule is often interpreted somewhat sympathetically rather than strictly.

It will be seen from the table at page 410 that among the 202 unions giving unemployed benefit, 40, including 175,544 members, belong to the engineering, iron, and shipbuilding trades; 23, including 97,703 members, to the building trades; 41, including 94,881 members, to the textile trades; 13, including 65,998 members, to the clothing trades; 19, including 34,715 members, to the printing and bookbinding trades; 28, including 25,185 members, to the furnishing and kindred trades, comprising cabinet-making, coach-building, coopers, cork, glass, leather and pottery trades; and 10 including 87,535 members, to the mining trades.

Travelling Benefit.—From the description given later, it will be seen that many unions which provide unemployed benefit give additional payments to unemployed members travelling in search of work. In addition to these there are several societies, notably among the building trades, which have no unemployed benefit proper, but make allowances, amounting usually to about 1s. 6d. a day, to travelling members. Precautions are taken against imposition, and members in receipt of this benefit must be continually on the move, strict limits being placed on the number of days' benefit which they may draw within a given district. It is found, however, by some unions that the benefit is largely taken advantage of, especially in the summer, by members of a roving disposition, and the payment is thought by many to encourage tramping. Some unions (e.g., the Scottish Typographical Association) have, therefore, discontinued it altogether. The same difficulty on a more serious scale was found by the Ironfounders' Society when it introduced a special emigration benefit in 1885; members used that allowance to obtain a holiday trip and then returned, and it had to be dropped after 18 years' trial.

Assistance to Members in obtaining Work.—In the case of some societies (e.g., the London Society of Compositors) it is the custom of employers to apply frequently to the society for men, and the office, therefore, acts as a kind of labour bureau. A few unions (e.g., the Dublin Bakers) go so far as to prohibit members from applying for work except through the society. In most societies, however, the main bulk of the work of obtaining employment is done by individual application, but many of the societies assist their members in the search for work by announcements, made at the branch meetings, of jobs vacant or of members wanting jobs, and in many other ways. In some societies (e.g., the Steam Engine Makers) considerable pains are taken to find places for unemployed members. Others (e.g.,

the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners) pay a small "bonus" of 6d. to any member who takes another "off the books" by finding him a situation.

The chief important societies publish periodical reports showing the state of employment in the districts in which they have branches, and distribute these reports gratuitously to their members. Some (e.g., the Engineers, Ironfounders, Compositors, and others) publish lists of the workshops in each district at which their members may apply for work.

Equalisation of Work.—In some trades it is the custom, especially in slack times, to equalise work, either by means of short time or by adopting some system of rotation, or by other measures, whereby the work may, so far as possible, be equally shared by all members. Rules with regard to special payments for overtime or night-work have to some extent a similar effect. In some cases the rules are regulations of trade unions, in others they are customs which prevail even outside the limits of trade societies. Several such rules are described on the following pages.

We now pass to a detailed description of the procedure of various trade societies.

(b.) ENGINEERING, SHIPBUILDING, AND METAL TRADES.

The Amalgamated Society of Engineers comes first among unions connected with the engineering and shipbuilding trades, in point of numbers and influence, and from its rules and mode of operation a fair idea may be obtained of the principles governing the practice of the best trade unions in respect to their unemployed members. This society is, therefore, described in fuller detail than the others which follow.

The primary object of the unemployed (or, as it is called, the donation) benefit of this society is the provision for its members who fall out of work, of a certain weekly sum for the purpose of sustenance. This point is brought out in the preface to the rules, from which a few sentences may be quoted :—

"Such societies as this should contain, if possible, all those engaged in the same calling, or, at all events, the greatest possible number who can be induced to join. For members of a trade working together in large numbers, who by their daily intercourse are made acquainted with each other's circumstances, and who are cognizant of much of the misery which is necessarily attendant on a precarious employment, would be inhuman indeed if they did not unite to relieve the distress of their fellow workmen, who are often placed in circumstances in which they cannot help themselves. . . . We are ready to admit that, whilst in constant employment, our members may be able to obtain the necessaries of life, but there is a fear, and by no means a groundless one, that employment may not be constant. The merest circumstance in the commercial world may influence the condition of thousands of working men, and, when thrown out of employment, all a man's arrangements of a domestic nature are subverted, and his hopes of being enabled by his own frugality to improve his social condition are proved to be only a dream."

The secondary and collateral objects naturally arise out of the first, and to the latter-day trade unionist, at least, are quite as important. It is obvious that if a workman is unemployed, and has no means of subsistence, he is much more likely to accept work under unfavourable conditions than the man who has a sufficient income to be in no fear of actual starvation. Thus the unemployed benefit of the trade union acts as a regulator of the labour market. Practically, the trade union of this class is in a position to minimise the competition of the individuals composing it, by using this benefit for the purpose of lessening pressure upon the labour market, while the same fund is also available for withholding or withdrawing the members from work for the purposes of the organisation. This latter object is, however, a matter which it is not necessary to discuss here.

It is also argued that men without means of subsistence deteriorate during long periods of enforced idleness, and that the unemployed benefit, by providing those out of work with some allowance for maintenance, tends to prevent the moral and physical loss of force to which the man out of work is liable. Thus the value of the trade unionist as a workman is likely to be better maintained at a high standard than in the case of the man with no resources. Another advantage is that as the trade union of this stamp is pledged by its rules to provide financial aid for its members out of work, it becomes bound as a matter of sound policy to do all it can to obtain them employment, in order that the drain upon its funds may be as far as possible kept down. Not only is it bound to do this, but it has to see that the man himself uses every effort to obtain work, and has to assist him if he has to travel to seek employment, or to reach work which he may have obtained at a distance.

A point of great importance for consideration is the amount of weekly payment which is most suitable for effecting all the objects in view. The sum to be fixed is, of course, limited by the funds at disposal, or, in other words, by the amount of the members' contributions available for this special purpose. In any case the amount should not be fixed at a figure so high as to act as a temptation to members to prefer idleness on benefit to work and its obligations. Nor should the benefit be paid for an unlimited period of time, which might also cause members to relax their efforts to obtain work.

These remarks apply to this class of trade union generally, but the principles described have found their fullest application in the case of the unions connected with the various engineering and cognate industries, and a few others formed on the same model. With the Amalgamated Engineers until last year there was only one class of member, and all were, under certain limitations, entitled to unemployed benefit, except those who had received other benefits (such as permanent disablement or superannuation benefit), incompatible with continuance to

work at their trade.* The total membership of the society is now about 73,000, of whom probably 70,000 are covered by the unemployed benefit.

The rule as to amount and duration of ordinary unemployed benefit is as follows:—

Full members, 10s. weekly for 14 weeks; 7s. for 30 weeks; 6s. per week as long as out of employment, unless in the case of members of under 10 years, to whom benefit shall terminate at 104 weeks in all.

It is also provided that in no case shall a member receive more than 19l. 18s. in any period of 52 weeks, and any member who is in receipt of donation on the lower scale of either 7s. or 6s. per week is not again entitled to full donation until he has worked four successive weeks at the trade at the standard rate of wages. This, it will be observed, limits the benefit to "full members," i.e., those who have been at least one year in the society, but "non-free" members are entitled to this benefit if withdrawn from their situation in the interest of the trade. These amounts are free of contribution payments, except in the case of non-free members. Limitation of benefit to free members, except in certain contingencies, has been already explained.

The other conditions to be satisfied are as follows. The member must "be discharged or leave his employment under " circumstances satisfactory to the branch to which he belongs," and not be disentitled to benefit by reason of being over 10s. in arrears. A further clause in the rule lays down that:—

"Any member losing his employment through neglect of work, drunkenness, or disorderly conduct, shall not be entitled to donation until he has again been in employment at the trade eight consecutive weeks at the ordinary rate of wages of the shop he may be working in."

To prevent any member obtaining donation improperly, the applicant for the benefit must state to the secretary of his branch the cause of his leaving his employment, and he must attend the next meeting of his branch to make his claim. If he is found to be in any way imposing on the society he forfeits his donation, and is liable to such other punishment as the branch may consider the case deserves.

Having thus established his claim to benefit, the member is required by the rules to conform to certain regulations intended to protect the society from imposition, and also to secure that the member may be easily available in the event of his services being required by an employer. In the first place he must sign what is termed the "vacant-book" of his branch once every day between certain hours. In fact his claim to donation does not really begin until he has signed this book three days. In most cases the vacant-book lies at the meeting-house of the

* Under the revised rules coming into operation last year different classes of members were provided for, but it is not yet definitely known how many have since joined under classes not eligible for unemployed benefit.

branch (which is usually a public-house), but in Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Glasgow, and New York the society has "vacant offices," at which the members of all the local branches attend daily and sign the book. Except in special cases a member is not entitled to benefit for any day on which he does not sign the book or answer to the vacant-book keeper in the towns where there is a vacant office.

Relaxations are granted for members resident at long distances from the vacant-book, and for those going to a distance in search of work, or having contagious sickness in their family. A list of the engineering workshops of the town is supposed to be available in each case. In the larger towns this list takes the shape of a printed directory of pocket size, in which not only the names and addresses of firms are given, but also the names of foremen of departments, and the hours at which they may be seen at the workshop gates by those in search of work.

The following rule imposes further obligations:—

"If any member from private objections refuse work when it is offered him, or neglect to apply when informed of a vacancy, he shall forfeit his donation until he obtains employment, except he can show sufficient cause to the committee, or a majority of the members present on the next branch meeting night. Any member who is in receipt of benefit, and gives preference to a person not belonging to the society to ask for or accept a situation, shall be suspended from benefit for three months. If any member gets a situation, or uses his influence in getting one, for any person not belonging to the society, without the consent of the secretary or president, he shall be fined not less than 5s. nor more than 20s. Whenever a member knows of a vacancy, or leaves one situation to go to another, or if he give or receive notice to leave his employment, he shall give information to the secretary of the branch to which he belongs, and to the secretary of the nearest branch or vacant-book keeper within 24 hours, or be fined 1s. for each neglect, unless satisfactory reason be given to the branch."

The rule further provides that any vacant office may be connected with the central telephone office of the district.

These are the special duties which devolve upon ordinary members in respect to the unemployed. The branch secretary is of course bound by these rules as well as the ordinary member, but he has further obligations in addition. He must attend to and supervise the vacant-book, and pay to the members by cheque on the branch treasurer, the weekly sums to which they are entitled. He must report once a month or oftener to the general office of the society in London as to the state of trade in his district, and the number of unemployed members and the departments of trade to which they belong, stating also if there is a probability of men being wanted. He is liable to a fine of 5s. for neglect of this duty.

A further clause as to the secretary's duty provides that—

"Should it be necessary for a secretary, or other member, to absent himself from his employment—if he lawfully may—to obtain men to fill situations which may be vacant, he shall be remunerated at the rate of wages he is then receiving,"

It is thus seen that the individual member must report to the secretary of the branch, and the secretary of the branch to the general secretary of the whole society, if necessary, as to the demand for men.

The duty of the general secretary then commences. If men are wanted in any locality, it is necessary that he should supply the demand at once from such locality as may be most convenient with regard to distance and general conditions of trade. His information as to the places most available for men is drawn from the monthly reports or other of the branch secretaries, which are published early in each month, and which thus form what may be termed the trade register or trade barometer of the society.

An unemployed member may not be in a position to remove to a distance to take work, so in these cases the rules provide as follows:—

“1. Any secretary on receiving notice from the general secretary, vacant-book keeper, or any of the branch secretaries, or any member or employer, that men are wanted in a particular district, shall, immediately on receiving such notice, send any members, in receipt of donation or contingent benefit, also non-free members if their arrears are below 10s., whom he considers qualified, and are out of employment, direct to the district where such men are required; but if it be stated that there are situations vacant for men so sent for, they shall receive their fare by the most convenient route. Pattern-makers, mill-wrights, and machine joiners shall, in addition to their railway fare, be remunerated for any legitimate expense they may be put to in removing their tools to and from the railway stations. No member's railway fare shall be paid from one district to another, providing suitable men may be obtained from the society's books in the district where such men are required. If they fail to obtain the situations, and desire to return to the place from which they were sent, their fare shall be paid back. The travelling expenses incurred shall not be counted as benefit, but must be repaid to the society by the member, provided he receives the fare from the person by whom he is employed or was sent for. Any member entitled to benefit shall, if sent to a situation in accordance with the foregoing, be paid his travelling fare, although he may not have been out of employment for three days, but in no case shall he receive more than 1l. 10s. Private communications between members shall not entitle them to the benefit of this clause.

“2. Any member under fifty of years age who is on donation benefit, refusing to remove to other places shall be suspended from donation, when the branch or branch committee shall at once investigate the case, and decide upon his claim to donation, and what other penalty, if any, shall be imposed. In no case shall a member refuse to go to, or start at, a situation in which he will receive the usual conditions of the district he is sent to.”

The rules also provide another arrangement under which members may travel about the country, or in other parts of the world in search of work. This rule is so important as to justify quotation:—

“Any member in receipt of donation wishing to travel, shall make application for a travelling card to the president or secretary. The

secretary shall fill up the card in strict accordance with the existing rules for that purpose. Branches to have a discretionary power to compel members on donation to use travelling cards, and any member so compelled to use a travelling card, and failing to obtain employment in the district within four weeks, must proceed elsewhere in search of employment. The card shall contain the member's name, the amount he has received as benefits, and the department of trade to which he belongs, and must be sent to the general office to be registered before being issued to the member. He shall call upon the secretary of one of the branches at least once in two days, or failing to assign a satisfactory reason for neglecting this, shall be disentitled to benefit for that time. The secretary of the branch at which any member arrives when on travel shall direct him to the place he considers the member is most likely to obtain employment at.

"Any member with a travelling card stopping in any town where there is a branch of the society more than one day, must sign the vacant-book, according to the 2nd clause of Rule XIX., and give up his travelling card to the secretary while he is staying in the town. The date and amount of subscriptions received by members on travel to be entered on their cards or certificates to prevent imposition. Any non-free member who has paid the whole of his entrance money, and is not 10s. in arrears, shall be allowed 8d. for a bed each night when on travel; but in towns where there are two or more branches, a bed for six nights.

"When any member on travel obtains employment, he shall deliver his travelling card or certificate to the secretary of the branch nearest to the place of such employment within three days from the time he obtains the same, and pay his contributions into that branch; if he neglect to deliver up his card or certificate within three days, he shall be fined 6d. for each day exceeding that time. When the secretary receives the travelling card he shall forward the same to the general office within seven days, but if within that period the member again falls out of employment, the secretary may at his discretion re-issue the travelling card to the member. Should it be proved that a member in receipt of donation, or on travel, does not exert himself to obtain employment, he shall forfeit donation.

"A discretionary power shall be vested in the officers of each branch to detain a member on travel for a short time if they see a prospect of obtaining employment for him, subject to the same conditions as a member in receipt of donation, but no member on travel shall be allowed to remain in a town where a dispute is pending. Wherever a branch holds its meetings it is the duty of the branch officers, where practicable, to see that there is sleeping accommodation for members on travel at a reasonable cost."

There is also a rule providing that "members going in search of, or returning from employment, to or from British Colonies, or other countries, with the sanction of their branch, shall be exempt from contributions during the voyage."

Members working half time through slackness of work, though not entitled to benefit, are exempt from contributions. Those who are temporarily suspended from their employment by reason of breakdowns, accidents, stock-taking, or slackness of work for a period of six days, are entitled to donation on the same conditions as other unemployed members.

Of late years, the society has endeavoured to mitigate the evil of want of work by encouraging movements for the reduction of working hours, and the limitation of overtime, in order that the available amount of work may be spread over as many men as possible. Several important districts have now somewhat severe restrictions as to the amount of overtime which may be worked by each man.

Members in extreme distress through being a long time out of work are entitled to assistance from the benevolent fund of the society, but no specific rules govern the distribution of this fund; each case being decided on its merits.

These rules set forth with sufficient clearness the methods adopted by this important society in dealing with its unemployed members. Practically, the same rules have been in operation in something like their present form ever since the amalgamation in the year 1851. Since that time the proportion of unemployed at a given time has varied from 0·8 per cent. in 1853 to 13·3 per cent. in 1879; the average over the 42 years being about 4·2 per cent. Even when trade is good a great many of the unemployed members travel in search of work, but in times of bad trade the number of travellers is considerable. Thus, during the month of July of the present year (1893), from 750 to 800 members were on travel in search of work, a figure which represents about 13·5 per cent. of those who were at that time out of work. In most cases the method of passing from place to place is systematic, towns being selected in geographical order of succession. Thus, to select a case at random, two members left Newcastle-on-Tyne on July 10th, and passed by way of Darlington, Stockton, Hartlepool, York, Doncaster, Chesterfield, and Mansfield to Nottingham, where their record for the month ends. Or, another member left the branch at Bilbao, in Spain, and reported himself at Manchester; and, again, another left Toronto, Canada, in search of work, and came to Luton. At each of these towns the members would be paid the benefit they were entitled to, and would be informed as to the state of trade and as to the best places at which to apply for work.

Since 1851 the aggregate amount of expenditure on unemployed benefits has been 1,718,144*l.*, being 48*l.* 8*s.* 5½*d.* per member for the 42 years.

The Steam Engine Makers' Society is another body composed of members working in much the same branches of trade as the Amalgamated Engineers. It is, in fact, one of the oldest of the sectional societies of the engineering trade, but declined to join the amalgamation in 1851, and has maintained an independent existence ever since. It has a membership of 6,250, the bulk of whom are entitled to donation or unemployed benefit. The exceptions are about 350, who have left

the trade or have received disablement or superannuation benefit, or are abroad or at sea.

The full enjoyment of unemployed benefit is only shared by "free members," that is, those who have been enrolled one year and upwards, and have paid all dues. The "non-free member," however, who is unemployed, is assisted in finding work by the influence and machinery of the society, and, if he cares to travel, is provided with a free bed in towns where the society has a branch.

A free member on being thrown out of work under conditions satisfactory to his branch, and not being disentitled to benefit by reason of arrears, is entitled to receive:—

10s.	per week	for	14 weeks.
7s.	"	"	14 "
4s.	"	"	24 "

If the member is over 50 years of age, and continues out of work over 52 weeks, he is allowed by rule to retain the 4s. per week for a further period of 52 weeks, but if he is under 50 years of age, his case has to be reported to the council of the society, who, if satisfied, may extend the benefit for a further period of 26 weeks.

The member while on benefit is exempt from payment of contributions. If a situation is found by or for him in any part of the United Kingdom the society pays him his railway fare, and, in addition, provides him a free bed in the strange town until he has actually commenced work. In the case of a member who is a pattern-maker this also covers conveyance of tools. The society also insures the pattern-maker against loss of tools by fire.

The system adopted by the society to assist its unemployed members to find work is described as one of "self-help." In the first place the society issues a monthly report containing a detailed statement from each of its 98 branches. If there is an improvement in any district, or in any shop, the local officers make every effort to obtain situations for members, and if none are available locally, they at once send to other branches for them. Most of these efforts are made voluntarily, but if a member loses time from work, or incurs expense in tram or rail fares in consequence, he is compensated for the loss incurred. The general result of these mutual good offices, backed up by the aid of the society, which does not hesitate to send a member 300 miles if there is an opening for him, is that the union generally shows a much lower per-centage of unemployed members than other societies in the same trade.

The branch club-house is generally the house of call for unemployed members, and is mostly a public-house. It is there that all branch meetings are held, and members sign the vacant-book and receive their benefit. Employers requiring men, or

foremen acting on their behalf, may send there for men if they are unable to obtain them in the usual way from among the applicants at the shop gate, or through other members working in their shop.

Travelling in search of work is not so common among the unemployed members of this society as in some others, as it is felt that the look-out for vacancies kept up by the members and officers generally all over the kingdom is so effective that nothing is to be gained by travelling until there is a known situation for the member to step into. As an evidence of the decline in travelling, it is said that, although a member can draw his full benefit while on the road and have his bed in addition, there have only been 280 travelling cards issued since 1879. The proportion of unemployed members can only be traced back to 1865, in which year the average per-centage at the end of each month was 0·8 as against 1·8 for the Amalgamated Engineers. In 1879 it was 10·1 as against 13·3 for the larger society. In 1890 the proportion was as low as 0·67 against 1·6 for the Amalgamated Society. During the 40 years ending December 1892 the total expenditure for unemployed benefit was 89,192*l.*, and the travelling expenditure 6,210*l.*

It will be seen that in this society the proportion of unemployed is noticeably less than that of the larger society with which it has so much in common, and whose methods of dealing with the unemployed difficulty are so much the same. This fact is not easily accounted for, but it seems probable that, as the members are mostly found in smaller groups and branches, their individual acquaintance with each other is closer, and the incentive to secure work for an unemployed member is consequently stronger.

The United Pattern Makers' Association has a total membership of 2,668, of whom 2,153 are eligible for unemployed benefit, those not eligible being non-free members, honorary members, and a very few who are trade protection members merely. Free members only, *i.e.*, those who have been one year in the society, if less than 10*s.* in arrears, are entitled to unemployed benefit if the circumstances of their loss of employment are satisfactory. The estimated number of those disentitled to benefit through arrears is about 200. The amount and duration of unemployed benefit is as follows :—

- 10*s.* a week for 12 weeks.
- 7*s.* a week for 12 weeks.
- 5*s.* a week for 12 weeks.

These amounts are free from contribution.

Unemployed members who go on travel in search of work are allowed 9*d.* per night as bed money, under certain conditions as to the distance travelled in a stated time. No member is compelled to travel. Those obtaining work at a distance have

their railway fare paid by the society, and any officer of the society who is applied to for men may send off any who are unemployed in his district, or, failing that, may apply to another district, the society paying all expenses in such cases.

Unemployed members must sign the vacant book of their branch each day, or if living at a distance of three to seven miles from the "house of call" or club-house, they must sign every alternate day. Members over that distance must send in a form signed by two witnesses, each week, to make good their claim to benefit.

If any member knows that a firm is busy or needs men he is under an obligation to insert a note in the vacant-book of his branch to that effect. Those on the unemployed list are thus informed of opportunities as they arise. Otherwise members out of work visit such workshops as they may think most likely to need men, and make application to the foremen. It is a very common thing for employers to apply to the society for men in times of good trade. Discretion is of course used in selecting men most suitable for the special class of work for which they may be required.

The society has no arrangement by which discharges of men may be obviated, such as short time, but some employers voluntarily adopt some such system in order that they may be able to retain men who may be of special value to them.

The state of trade in each district is ascertained by monthly reports from the branches, which are published and distributed for the use of members. In addition, when necessary, communications as to special conditions of trade or demand for labour take place among branches or between branches and the general office. Travelling in search of work is steadily decreasing. It is usually found that the more perfectly a trade is organised the less necessity there is for its members to travel in search of work.

The average monthly proportion of unemployed members of the society in 1881 was 1·0 per cent.; in 1886, which was a bad year, it was 9·8 per cent., and in 1892 it was 7·8 per cent. From the formation of the society in 1872 up to the close of 1892 the total expenditure from the trade fund of the society has been 20,902*l.*, amounting to 15*l.* 7*s.* 0½*d.* per member.

The Friendly Society of Iron Founders is an old society, having been established in Lancashire as far back as 1809. At the close of 1892 the total membership was 15,190, of whom 13,396 were "first-class" members entitled to every benefit of the society. There were, however, nearly 1,800 third and fourth class, honorary, superannuated, and other members, who were not entitled to the unemployed benefit. A little over 88 per cent. of the entire membership are, therefore, eligible to receive this benefit.

The rule governing the distribution of "donative" or unemployed allowance is very complicated. The weekly amount allowed to a member of two years' standing is:—

9s.	per week for the first 13 weeks.
8s.	" " " " second 13 weeks.
6s.	" " " " next 26 weeks.

After such period has expired the amount is 1s. per week.

The amount of 1s. per week, as contribution, is deducted from these sums, and also any report or accident levies falling due. It will, therefore, be seen that the last scale of benefit of 1s. per week is intended to pay the member's contribution if he remain out of work. After receiving 12 months' donation the member must work nine weeks at the trade before he can again come on full benefit, unless he is over 55 years of age, in which case he is only required to work six weeks. A member who has been one year but less than two in the society is only entitled to half the above amounts, and is liable to the full deduction of 1s. per week. Members over six weeks in arrears of contributions are not entitled to benefit. To make good his claim to donation a member must produce a note signed by the steward of his shop (a society officer) or by two free members working at the same foundry, giving the date and stating the circumstances under which he was discharged. A member merely suspended from his employment is entitled to donation after six days of idleness. The printed forms certifying cause of discharge, &c. are supplied, so far as possible, to the shop stewards, and are also to be obtained at the club-house of the branch. A member discharged through intemperance, disorderly conduct, or neglect of work, is not entitled to donation until he has again worked three weeks at the trade. Members on donation must attend the club-house on each Tuesday and Thursday between certain hours, to sign the unemployed book, and on Friday evening to receive their donation. Members residing over six miles from the club-house are allowed to attend less frequently for the purposes of the donation rule, but must supply certificates from time to time showing that they are not infringing any of the rules. No donation is allowed for a shorter period of non-employment than six days. Any member found guilty of imposing on the society by working while in receipt of this benefit, is liable to fine and forfeiture of benefit. Those receiving benefit are bound also to exert themselves to obtain employment. In a locality where there are less than three foundries, unemployed members who have received three months' donation are required to remove in search of employment elsewhere, otherwise their benefit ceases. Members obtaining situations at a distance may have third-class rail or boat fare advanced to them, and in addition 1s.

to 5s. if required, but they must sign an I O U to the president of the branch for the amount so received, which must be repaid. An unemployed member refusing to accept work is subject to forfeiture of donation. No member may receive in any one year more than 18l. 17s. in donation or sick benefit or both.

Unemployed members and the society at large are kept informed as to the state of the labour market by the monthly trade report, which states for each branch the condition of trade, the number of members on each benefit, and the number of travellers relieved. This report is circulated through the branches by about the end of the first week of the month.

• A member desiring to travel in search of work is granted a travelling card, for which a charge of 4d. is made. This card shows what benefit he is entitled to, and gives all details as to his position on the books of the society. The use of this card is watched very jealously, and anyone obtaining a card improperly, or wilfully defacing, forging, or altering it, is liable to heavy penalties. No card is allowed to remain in circulation longer than six months without renewal. As soon as a traveller obtains work he must return his card to the society at once or be fined 1s. A member on unemployed benefit, and with a card, is allowed a bed if five miles from home. A member of two years' standing when on travel is allowed 1s. 4d. per day for the first five days of the week, and 2s. 4d. on the sixth day, the extra 1s. being, however, stopped as contribution. After 13 weeks the amounts fall to lower scales, as for ordinary unemployed benefit. After his full period of donation expires the member on travel is allowed what is termed a "blank card," which entitles him to have his contribution paid. The member of only one year's standing is allowed half the above amounts, while those of only three months' standing are allowed while on travel a bed at each club-house, and 4d. each Saturday. Those who have exhausted their full period of donation are also allowed a blank card to travel with, and are entitled to a free bed and 1s. 4d. on each Saturday, the 1s. being stopped as contribution. A member losing his work under circumstances which disentitle him to donation is also allowed a blank card to travel with. Free members wishing to move from one seaport to another while on travel may have passage-money advanced on loan. If a traveller refuses work his card is stopped and he is fined 5s., unless he can give a satisfactory reason for his refusal. The arrangements for members travelling in Scotland or Ireland are somewhat different from those above described, but are the same in essential particulars. There are also mutual arrangements between this society and the Associated Iron Moulders of Scotland, as regards members travelling. The number, however, who travel in search of work tends on the whole slowly to decrease, though it varies with the state of trade.

This is brought out in the following table, based on statistics published in the last annual report of the society.

Year.	Total Number of Cards issued.	Proportion of Travelling Cards issued to every 100 Members in the Society.	Average Number of Members constantly on Travel.	Proportion of Members at any one Time travelling to every 1,000 Members in the Society.
1873 - - -	940	8'1	60	6'3
1874 - - -	1,048	13'8	86	7'2
1875 - - -	1,762	14'2	70	5'7
1876 - - -	1,925	15'2	108	8'6
1877 - - -	1,912	15'1	155	12'3
1878 - - -	1,897	15'0	177	14'0
1879 - - -	1,963	15'9	213	17'4
1880 - - -	1,430	12'3	139	12'0
1881 - - -	1,236	11'4	89	7'9
1882 - - -	1,194	10'4	57	5'0
1883 - - -	1,213	10'1	63	5'3
1884 - - -	1,511	12'1	99	8'0
1885 - - -	1,418	11'4	113	9'1
1886 - - -	1,345	11'1	108	9'0
1887 - - -	1,243	10'6	101	8'6
1888 - - -	1,056	8'7	57	4'7
1889 - - -	883	6'4	22	1'6
1890 - - -	1,355	8'5	45	3'0
1891 - - -	1,542	10'1	77	5'0
1892 - - -	1,502	9'9	119	7'8

A list of most of the foundries in the United Kingdom is published in the society's yearly report, of which every member receives a copy. Employers wanting men, as a rule, ask those in their employ if they know of any who are suitable, and intimation in the case of society men is at once sent round to the branches. There are no special arrangements by short time or otherwise for securing a distribution of available work over as many men as possible, though some firms adopt such a policy voluntarily in times of depression.

During a period of 62 years the total unemployed expenditure of the society has been 762,621*l.*, or an average of 8*d.* per member per week.

The monthly average of unemployed members varies considerably according to the state of trade. In 1879 the proportion of unemployed reached the high figure of 22'3 per cent.; in 1889 it sank as low as 1'8, while in 1892 it rose to 8'7.

Associated Iron Moulders of Scotland.—This is an old established society, having been formed in Glasgow in 1831. At the close of 1892 it had a total membership of 6,268, all of whom were eligible for unemployed benefit, except such as might be sick, superannuated, or otherwise disabled.

In respect to unemployed benefit two classes of cards are issued, one being red and the other blue. Members after 12 months' membership hold a red card, which entitles them to—

13 weeks' benefit at 8s. 6d. per week, and

4s. 6d. "

Blue cards are granted after 18 months' membership, and entitle the holder to—

13 weeks' benefit at 10s. 6d. per week, and

5s. 6d. "

A claimant must not be over four weeks in arrears with his payments, and must have been thrown out of work by "slackness, under-payment, resisting a reduction of wages, or unjustifiable abuse from employer or foreman." He is not entitled if he has been dismissed for "insobriety, irregularity, or absence without leave—except from illness." Members cannot receive the higher grade of benefit in either class twice in any period of 39 weeks, but it may be renewed if they have worked in one or more shops consecutively. Members failing to attend at the time and place appointed for the payment of benefit, are not paid until the following pay day, unless they can satisfy the officers that their absence was accidental or unavoidable. Members travelling in search of work may receive the benefit due to them at houses of call in different towns, but may not draw more than one week's benefit at a time. Members refusing work while on this benefit forfeit their claim to it, unless a satisfactory reason can be given for such refusal.

As stated in the case of the English society, there is a mutual understanding between the two societies as to members who pass into one country out of the other. Idle benefit, however, ceases when the member leaves Scotland. Every member working within the English society's bounds must pay 3d. per week to that society, and English society members must in like manner contribute to the Scottish society while working within its bounds. Members of each society must also conform to the trade regulations of the other while working in its district.

The society issues a monthly report, by means of which the members are informed of the state of trade throughout Scotland. Special cases of distress are relieved by the society from a fund called the assistance fund.

The proportion of unemployed members in this society reaches a high per-centage, and during the past five years has ranged from 13.18 in 1892 to 4.07 in 1889, the average for the five years being 9.15. This has caused heavy demands upon the members in work. The total paid as unemployed benefit since the formation of the society has been 255,250*l*.

The National Society of Amalgamated Brass-workers gives out-of-work benefit under certain conditions, which are as follows:—

Class I.—Members of 13 weeks' standing are entitled to receive 3s. per week for 10 weeks. Afterwards a "retention-of-membership allowance" of 1s. 8d. per week is paid during the discretion of the executive or branch committee.

Class II.—Members of six months receive 10 weeks' pay at 5s. per week; 10 weeks at 3s.; and a retention-of-membership benefit of 1s. 8d. per week afterwards, as in Class I.

Class III.—Members of nine months are allowed 7s. 6d. per week for 10 weeks, and 4s. per week for the next 10 weeks, and afterwards in like manner receive the 1s. 8d. per week for retention of membership.

Class IV.—Members of 12 months are entitled to 10s. per week for 13 weeks, and 7s. per week for the next 13 weeks; afterwards to the retention-of-membership benefit as above.

Members on the funds who wish to emigrate to America may obtain a grant of 3l. 10s. Emigrants to Australia are paid 5l.

Contributions are deducted from out-of-work pay or any benefit. There is no travelling benefit as such. When a member obtains work in another town his railway fare is paid by the society; but in doubtful cases it is advanced as a loan.

In Birmingham, the head-quarters of the society, where the office is open all day, the unemployed members receive out-of-work cards, which they must get signed every day. In the branches a vacant book lies at the club-house, which must be signed each day by those out of employment.

Work is found for the unemployed in a variety of ways. Firms often send representatives to Birmingham 'commissioned to engage workmen, and these visitors frequently make application to the offices of the society, and take artisans on the recommendation of the general secretary.

The only labour registry is an out-of-work form, which when filled in contains particulars regarding name, age, branch of trade, wages required, and address.

The custom of making direct application by manufacturers to the office for men is said to be growing. The men themselves, however, often make personal application for work. By the rules of the society members must report an engagement, and between one and two o'clock on the following Friday must apply for their "odd days'" out-of-work pay. The only way of gauging the condition of trade in each of the 18 branches of the society is by correspondence.

The general secretary of the society says:—"Travelling from town to town in search of work has greatly decreased. The trade tramp is dying out, and the sooner the system is dead the better. One of the oldest trade unions only recently expunged the travelling rule, on the ground that travelling in search of work tended to degrade the members. Travelling

“ after work where there is some evidence that it exists, and
 “ where the workman receives help either from his society or
 “ his friends, is, in my judgment, on the increase. Leaving
 “ home or the town is not so much dreaded as formerly, railway
 “ excursions being so cheap, frequent, and speedy.”

The File-cutters' Society, Sheffield, which may be taken as typical of the cutlery trades, provides that when members receive notice to leave their employment they inform the secretary, and at the expiration of such notice, and before being placed on the unemployed list, they make application to the secretary and give a full account of their family (if any), and especially of such portion as may be working in the file trade or chargeable to the funds. All work done by members on the unemployed list or by any of their family chargeable to the funds is stated to the committee each Saturday before such members receive benefit. From money earned in the file trade two-thirds is deducted from the out-of-work benefit, and from money earned entirely out of the file trade one-third is deducted.

The scale for unemployed benefit is as follows :—

8s. per week for a man.

2s. „ „ his wife (if not working at the trade and a member).

4s. per week for his wife (if working at the trade and a member).

1s. per week for each child under 13 years of age.

2s. 8d. per week for each boy under 18 years of age.

5s. 4d. „ „ „ from 18 to 20 years of age.

2s. 6d. „ „ women and girls.

The unemployed attend a roll-call at such time and place as the committee appoint.

When on the funds they are not permitted to seek work at their own trade, without directions from the secretary, who is in communication with the employers and generally knows where men are required.

The Boiler Makers' and Iron Shipbuilders' Society is one of the most powerful trade societies in the kingdom, and contains within its ranks nearly the whole of the men employed in the various branches of industry it represents. At the end of 1892 there were 39,004 members on the books, distributed over 252 branches in different parts of the United Kingdom. All free and full members are entitled to unemployed benefit if not 12s. in arrears or disqualified through misconduct causing loss of work. Members are “free” 12 months after joining the society. A member thrown out of work by depression of trade or other cause satisfactory to the officers of his branch is entitled, after signing the vacant-book for two days, to receive benefit at home at the rate of 7s. per week for 14 weeks and 3s. per week for 9 weeks, whether successive

or not, in one year. Should any member come on the "short donation," he is in the following year entitled to unemployed benefit at the rate only of 5s. per week after having worked one month at the trade. In no case may a member receive donation unless he can prove that he has worked one month at the trade in each year. Those suspended from work for longer than six days are entitled to donation. If unemployed members wish to travel in search of work they are supplied with a card containing full particulars as to the amount per week they are entitled to draw or have drawn, and their benefit is the same in amount as they would receive at home. All unemployed members must sign the vacant book of their branch three times a week at stated hours, unless they can show that they have gone to a distance in search of work. A discretionary power is vested in the officers of each branch to detain a member who is on travel if they see a prospect of obtaining work for him. Members signing the vacant book must go to a situation at a distance if required, their fare being paid by the society. The branch secretaries report each month to the general office of the society in Newcastle-on-Tyne as to the state of trade and the number of members on the different benefits. The district delegates, who have the supervision of the districts into which the United Kingdom is divided for the purposes of the society, also report generally on the state of their districts. The whole of these reports and much additional information are printed and circulated each month among the branches, so that members may know in what directions work is most plentiful. The annual report of the society, of which each member receives a copy, contains a trade directory of the boiler, ship, and bridge building establishments of the United Kingdom as well as of all the houses of call of the society.

Employers in want of men apply to the branch officers or to the chief office of the society, and if men are available they are at once sent where they are required. If the demand for men is brisk, and the distance they are to be sent is great, the society does not pay the whole cost of transport, but divides it with the employers who need the men.

The society in such cases guarantees the honesty of the men, and if they do not remain three months at the job, they are called upon to refund their fares and pay a fine of 10s. each, the employer receiving back what he may have paid. Men sent for are selected in order of turn, having regard to their suitability for the work in question.

Except in cases of shops where disputes may be pending, unemployed members apply direct to employers for work, and this is the course most generally followed.

There is no arrangement as to short time in declining trade in order to secure the continuous employment of the greatest possible number of men; but in some yards and shops this object is secured by employing men week and week about.

Travelling in search of work is decreasing in the case of this society, and this tendency would seem to become greater as the means of obtaining trustworthy information as to the state of trade in each district are augmented.

Members of this society are subject to great fluctuations of trade, and the per-centage of its unemployed members has varied from 0·6 in 1882, the golden year of shipbuilding, to 22·3 in 1885, a year of intense depression. The average monthly number of unemployed for the past 15 years has been about 10·8 per cent. From 1867 to 1892 the total expenditure on unemployed benefits was 373,295*l*. It is interesting to observe that for at least the first 14 years of this period travelling donation was a much more important benefit than home donation, and was encouraged as the most likely means of enabling the unemployed to find work for themselves. Thus for the 17 years, 1867–1883, when travelling was to some extent compulsory, no less than 111,781*l*. was paid to travellers, while only 35,485*l*. was paid for home donation. Since 1883 the policy of the society has changed in this respect, and no separate account is taken of the amount paid to travellers—a change obviously due to the altered conditions of the trade.

The Associated Shipwrights' Society is the chief organisation among shipwrights, and numbers 12,000 members, about 50 per cent. of whom are eligible for unemployed benefit.

Members of 12 months' standing, when out of employment for six consecutive days under circumstances satisfactory to their branch, are entitled to the sum of 9*s*. per week for 10 weeks and 5*s*. per week for other 10 weeks, but no member can receive more than this number of weeks' benefit in any given 12 months. Those who receive the maximum amount of unemployed benefit are not entitled to further relief until 12 months have elapsed from the date when they first came on full benefit, in addition to which they must have worked at least four weeks at the trade during the interval. Subject to these provisions, members are entitled when unemployed to 5*s*. per week for 20 weeks during the second 12 months. Similar provisions are also made for members who receive the first period of 10 weeks' benefit, and subsequently claim the higher rate of 9*s*. per week.

Members are not eligible for this benefit if unemployed for less than three days, and must sign the vacant book for six consecutive days before being entitled to receive a week's payment.

Only those who are under 40 years of age and in good health on admission are eligible for full benefit, special arrangements, however, being made in cases where men join in a body.

No special travelling, removal, or emigration benefits are provided by the rules, but those desirous of emigrating frequently go out as ship's carpenters.

When desirous of travelling in search of work members apply to their branch secretary for a clearance, on which is stated the name of the branch, the class of benefit to which they are

entitled, and other particulars. Those securing work or desiring to stay in any place, hand in their clearances to the nearest branch, and if unemployed sign the branch vacant book. Branch officers are at liberty to refuse to permit members travelling without a clearance to seek or obtain employment.

So far as possible, employment is found for members, and in some cases they are directed to places where employment may be obtained. Those refusing to go to work when so instructed or declining to accept work when offered them, are liable to forfeit their unemployed benefit until they have been at work for a period of one month, due consideration being given, however, to their circumstances, domestic and otherwise.

Members in receipt of unemployed benefit pay full subscriptions, but those who are not eligible for this benefit are not disqualified through arrears of contributions, if such arrears are caused through want of employment, the only condition being that they sign the vacant book. This privilege is not taken full advantage of, with the result that members through their own neglect frequently get into arrear in slack times and fall out of benefit, while some even allow their membership to lapse and are then compelled to re-enter as new members at a lower scale of benefits in consequence of advanced age.

Generally speaking there are no particular hours of call for unemployed members, each district having its own custom. At Liverpool, for example, the men usually congregate at the docks at nine o'clock in the morning, when their delegate obtains information at the office and reports the result. This, however, applies principally to the graving docks. A similar custom also exists at Dundee. The method generally adopted is for members to congregate at the gates or starting places of such firms as are thought likely to require assistance. In addition to this, members visit the various docks and yards, and thus frequently obtain casual employment.

The rules provide for the advance of money as loans to pay the railway fares of members going to another district to work, whether sent by the society or not, but in all cases they must have work to go to. Such money must be refunded within two months if the members continue in employment.

Employers or their agents frequently apply to the society for men, and if they cannot be obtained in the locality requests for the required number of men are addressed to other districts or to the general office. Preference is given to good "financial" members who may be unemployed, and if more are signing the vacant-book than are required a ballot is taken.

Members are not permitted to go into any district in search of work, and in some districts they are refused employment if they have not been sent for. The object of this regulation is to prevent men going in too large numbers to any district.

While no printed regulations exist as to the mode by which members may or may not seek work, the society objects to

written or other recommendations from friends or managers, which may result in men being put into work over the heads of those who are seeking it in the usual manner at the dock or yard gates. The society also objects to one employer lending men to another, and to men leaving one job to go to another, nor are members supposed to go to employers' or foremen's houses to seek work. The importation of men from other districts while local men are idle is likewise regarded by the men as contrary to the recognised custom. No objection, however, is offered to men applying to employers direct, provided they do so in the manner customary in the district.

Each district has local customs which tend to promote the sharing or equalisation of work at all times among the members, as far as the exigencies of the shipping industry will permit:

- (a.) By fixing the number of men required to do certain classes of work;
- (b.) By regulating the quantity of work to be done by each man daily;
- (c.) By preventing a man from being employed by two distinct employers at one time;
- (d.) By prohibiting men from taking work by the piece or by contract;
- (e.) By refusing to work any or by limiting the amount of overtime according to circumstances;
- (f.) By demanding that double or more sets of men be put on all urgent work, wherever practicable.

In times of depression the society recommends that short time should be resorted to in order to obviate the discharge of men, and in some districts this custom exists. The difficulty is that the employers and workmen are not agreed as to the method of working short time, the former preferring six three-quarter days, while the latter prefer that such days as are worked, whether they be two, three, or more, should be complete days, in order that when compelled to work short time they may have the advantage of one or more clear days instead of six quarters of a day. Many districts only work from daylight to dark during the winter months, the rates of pay being the same as in summer, when longer hours are worked.

In order to ascertain the state of trade in the various districts each branch sends a report monthly and quarterly to the general office, and these are supplemented by quarterly reports by the district delegates, which are printed and circulated among the members. In addition to this an interchange of correspondence between branch and branch, and between district and district, and the general office is being carried on continually, so that full opportunity exists of getting to know the state of trade in any district.

The Shipwrights' Provident Union of the Port of London, which was established in 1824, numbers about 1,400 members. No provision is made by the rules for out-of-

work, travelling, removal or emigration benefit, but the following regulations with respect to the mode of working are interesting, the object being "that every opportunity may be given to those who are out of employ, and that the principles of union and friendship may be cultivated amongst all the members."

No member of this society may engross a greater quantity of work than he can accomplish during the regular hours of the trade. He may not work before or after the recognised working hours, nor may work by candle light be performed inside after the men on the outside of the ship have left work. If men are discharged off a job no overtime is worked on that job while the men are unemployed. Any member leaving one job to go to another, may not return to the job he left.

No member employed afloat during the day is allowed to go to any yard, either in the morning before the regular hours for commencing work, or in the evening after the regular hours for leaving work, for the purpose of working overtime on any other job, excepting the members who are usually employed in the yard, who are allowed to go docking or undocking after the regular working hours, if they are employed by the same firm during the day-time.

The Barge Builders' Union mainly consists of men employed in that industry on the Thames and Medway.

Every member of 12 months' standing is entitled to out-of-work benefit, the amount paid being 1s. 8d. per day for not less than three successive days. The maximum amount paid in any 12 months is 96 days, the question of any further relief to a member who may have received that amount being determined at a general meeting.

In order to claim this benefit a member must give notice of leaving his employment to the secretary or a district committee man within 24 hours, who, if satisfied, furnishes him with a card which must be signed at least every other day by a member, no member in one yard being eligible to sign more than once in 12 days. This card is produced at the next meeting of the society, and, if in order, whatever is due is paid, the card being returned to the secretary immediately work is obtained.

Any member leaving his employment under circumstances that are not satisfactory to the committee is not entitled to out-of-work benefit until he has again obtained employment.

In the event of overtime being worked when there are members unemployed the committee are directed by rule to endeavour to prevent it.

The above societies may be taken as typical in their respective departments of industry, but there are a large number of less important societies in the same group of trades which also pay unemployed benefit, and which, generally speaking, follow much the same methods as those above described, such as :—The United Machine Workers' Association, General Tool Makers and

Machinists, Metal Planers, Shapers, &c., Associated Blacksmiths, Co-operative Smiths, London Hammermen, London Tin Plate Workers, London Zinc Workers, Electro Plate Operatives, &c.

(c.) BUILDING TRADES.

Among the trade unions connected with the building trades, which are largely seasonal in character, the payment of out-of-work benefit properly so called is far less common than among the trades dealt with above, being apparently confined to the Carpenters and Joiners, certain branches of the Plumbers, and one society of Painters. Even among these societies the payment, as will be seen from the description given below, is of a strictly limited character. Travelling benefit, however, is generally given by societies which do not pay unemployed benefit.

The unions described are selected as being representative of the principal trade organisations in the building trades.

The principal societies of carpenters and joiners in the United Kingdom are the "Amalgamated," the "General Union," and the "Associated"; many of the local societies that formerly existed having been merged into one or other of the above organisations.

The Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, to which the following description applies, includes 37,588 out of 47,503 members of the above societies.

All members are eligible to unemployed benefit who have been 12 months in the society, and are not more than eight weeks in arrears. The amount paid is 10s. per week for the first 12 weeks, and 6s. per week for another 12 weeks, making a possible total of 9l. 12s. in any period of 12 months. About 2½ or 3 per cent. are "trade" members only, and are, therefore, not entitled to unemployed or sick benefit, either because when they joined they were too old to be eligible to full benefits, or because they prefer foregoing them in consideration of a reduced rate of contribution. Members in receipt of benefits pay no contribution.

Those in receipt of unemployed benefit sign a vacant book, in which a list of shops in the town and neighbourhood is kept. Members not entitled to benefit may also sign for the purpose of securing work. This book is usually in charge of the proprietor of the rooms in which the branch meets, and is accessible to all members of the society upon production of their contribution cards. Those entitled to unemployed benefit and signing the vacant book must give notice in writing to the branch secretary. Members knowing of a vacancy must also give notice to the branch secretary or place such notice in the vacant book. Anyone taking members off the vacant book is allowed sixpence per member for so doing. In addition to signing the vacant book those in receipt of unemployed benefit

are expected to search for work by applying at workshops, buildings, &c.

It is customary in some towns for employers or their agents to apply to the union for men, but there is no provision made in the rules for selecting men in such cases. Employers often prefer men who have previously worked for them, in which case they are mentioned by name; but when the matter is left in the hands of the branch secretary he uses his own judgment, preference being given to members who have signed longest or to those not entitled to benefit. With respect to the efficiency or honesty of men supplied no guarantee is given, but candidates for admission into the society are supposed by the rules to have worked at the trade five years, and to be good workmen, of steady habits, and fair moral character.

Local working rules frequently provide for a reduction in the hours of labour, both in the shops and on the works in winter, in order that as many men as possible may be employed, and, so far as practicable, prohibitive rates are enforced for overtime.

Members wishing to travel are granted travelling cards which enable the holders to draw unemployed benefit at any branch they may visit. In the event of employment being found at a distance, unemployed members who are in receipt of benefit are, as a rule, entitled to the cheapest fare, up to a distance of 150 miles. Members travelling in search of work can receive their benefit daily instead of weekly, but must call upon a branch secretary at least every other day. They are expected to look for work, and if the secretary of any branch knows of an opening, he can send them to it, or detain them if he thinks there will be a chance of a job in a few days. In this case such members must sign the vacant book in the town where detained.

The various branches of the union send in monthly returns of the state of trade and the number of members in receipt of unemployed benefit, which are printed in the monthly reports and circulated amongst the members.

Travelling in search of work has decreased of late years, which is probably due, to a large extent, to the fact that members are now paid the same amount per week, whether stationary or on travel.

No emigration benefit is paid, but members removing from one country to another are exempt from paying contributions during the voyage.

The Operative Bricklayers' Society pays no out-of-work benefit, but all members of twelve months' standing are entitled to travelling benefit, to obtain which travelling cheques, containing a list of the places where travelling benefit is paid, are issued by the branch secretaries on application. These cheques entitle members to 1s. 6d. at any relieving station distant six miles from the place where such cheques were issued,

or where last relief was received, except in some few specified towns where two days' relief in succession may be drawn, and in London, where seven reliefs may be obtained, one at each station.

Travelling cheques are current for eight weeks from date of issue. Members succeeding in obtaining employment for a few days are entitled to reclaim their cheques if required, but in no case can they receive more than eight weeks' travelling benefit during any half year, or draw another cheque for the space of three months after the termination of this period.

When on travel members are entitled to receive benefit at their own branch or district if relieved at a branch six miles from their district on the previous day.

Members who expect to shortly finish their jobs attend their branch meetings and announce the fact. The other members bear this in mind, and also state where they believe hands may be wanted, the president usually announcing these facts from the chair. Employers seldom apply to the union for men, work being usually obtained by personal application or by the co-operation and assistance of other members.

On all official note-paper a space is reserved for secretaries to insert the state of trade whenever they may be communicating with the general office or with other branches, and these returns are published in each monthly circular.

Taking into consideration the increased membership, travelling in search of work has somewhat decreased of late years.

Most branches of the society have a benevolent fund connected with them, which is under the absolute control of the branch. The amount of quarterly subscription fixed by the branch ranges from 6*d.* to 2*d.* per member. The rules governing these funds differ in details, but the general principle underlying them is the same, the object being to render assistance to members when in distress through want of employment, domestic troubles, or other unforeseen circumstances. In cases of this kind it is competent for a member of the same branch to propose at any ordinary meeting that members who have met with any misfortune through no fault of their own shall receive a gratuity, or have their arrears of subscription paid. Branches may also by resolution appeal to each other, grants being made in accordance with the merits of each case.

The Operative Stonemasons' Society pays no out-of-work benefit. Members of this society become entitled to the full benefits of travelling relief at the expiration of six months from the date of entrance fee being paid. When travelling in search of employment they are entitled to 98 days' relief in the year, dating from the time when the benefit is claimed. For this purpose a traveller's cheque book is issued to members establishing their claim to membership, containing the number of cheques to which they are entitled during the year. Travellers receive 6*d.* per day for any distance under 10 miles, 1*s.* 3*d.* for

10 miles and under 20, and 1*d.* for every additional three miles; on Sundays and holidays they receive 1*s.* 6*d.* per day without travelling. Members drawing their cheque books from a town where a dispute exists are allowed 1*s.* 6*d.* per day for any distance under 20 miles, and 1*d.* for every additional three miles. Members of over 12 and under 26 weeks' membership receive 9*d.* per day, those of under 12 weeks' membership not being entitled to benefit except in cases of dispute.

Members are entitled to a travelling cheque book or clearance card, whether discharged or not, but no one can be relieved at any lodge within 10 miles of the place from which he drew his book until the expiration of four weeks, nor when expenses are paid to go from one place to another. No cheques are relieved on the day of issue, or on any day on which members have been working, and no one is allowed a cheque book when suspended from work through frost.

When travelling in search of employment members receive one day's relief at all relieving stations, whether they start work the same day or not, except in towns where two days or more are allowed, in which cases members starting work the second day do not receive the second day's relief. Those who have been once relieved at any lodge are entitled to 1*s.* only once during the 12 weeks, such relief being counted as one day's relief towards their 98 days' allowance.

Travellers between England and Ireland of over six months' membership receive third-class boat fare on landing, upon production of their travelling cheque books, and under certain conditions return fare is allowed.

Cheque books are detained if members fail to accept employment without giving satisfactory reasons.

For the convenience of members in search of employment each relieving station throughout the country possesses a book containing the names of the employers in the town, and the names of the streets, roads, or lanes in which the yards or jobs are situated. It is the duty of the secretary to keep this book correctly entered up to date, and only members in possession of their cheque books are allowed to examine it.

On obtaining employment members must deliver their cheque books or clearance cards to the shop steward or secretary of the nearest lodge within seven days, failing which they are fined 1*s.* per week until they comply.

No removal grant is provided by the rules of the society, but branches not unfrequently advance money for this purpose as loans out of their local funds.

Travelling in search of work has decreased of late years, members in the London district particularly, preferring to wait for work to turn up.

The state of the labour market is ascertained by reports from branch secretaries, the trade journals, and other available sources,

and this information is published in a report issued for the use of members once a fortnight.

Suggestions have from time to time been made with the view of establishing an out-of-work benefit, but hitherto without success. Some few lodges in the metropolitan area, however, have what are called contingent funds, membership of which is optional and is confined to those under 55 years of age. The entrance fee is 6*d.* and the contributions range from 2½*d.* to 4½*d.* per month, according to the benefits subscribed for to the parent society. Subscribing members of six months' standing are entitled, when out of employment or sick, to have ten weeks' contributions from these funds paid into the general funds, but are not entitled to the benefits of the contingent fund more than 20 weeks in one year. Applications for these benefits are made personally, except when members are in search of employment or out of the district. Claimants must be clear on the lodge books, and must have been six days out of employment or sick.

The National Association of Operative Plasterers provides no out-of-work benefit. Members of six months' standing desirous of obtaining travelling certificates through want of employment make application on a regular meeting night of the lodge to which they belong, though in cases of emergency the officers of a lodge have power to grant a travelling certificate. Persons leaving their employment or losing time through bad weather are not entitled to these certificates.

When travelling with a certificate in search of employment members receive as relief at each district the sum of 1*s.* 6*d.* per day, inclusive of Sunday. In certain specified towns those desirous of seeking employment may receive 1*s.* 6*d.* the second day, but 3*s.* is the maximum amount of relief paid in any one district, with the exception of London, where four days' relief is paid if necessary.

No relief is paid on the day certificates are issued, or in more than one district on any given day, or more than once in any district until twelve months have elapsed from the date of last relief. Members are not entitled to relief within a radius of seven miles of the district in which a certificate is issued, nor can they receive relief in their own district until they have been travelling seven clear days.

All branches keep a vacant book, but it is seldom used, members as a rule depending upon their own knowledge and upon information obtained at their lodge meetings.

Employers occasionally send to the provincial branch secretaries for men, and if there are any signing the vacant book they are, as a rule, taken in rotation. The union takes no responsibility as to the honesty or efficiency of the men employed.

The United Operative Plumbers' Association.—With the exception of the two branches at Sheffield and Liverpool, no out-of-work benefit is paid by this society. In these

towns the sum of 5s. per week is paid for 13 weeks in the year; but these funds are purely local, and not under the control of the executive council of the society.

As to the Society at large, members out of work (satisfactory reason being given) can receive from the lodge a certificate to travel in search of employment, which entitles them, after 12 months' membership, to 1s. 6d. per day, Sundays included, and after six months' membership to 9d. per day; new members being entitled to a certificate enabling them to obtain work from any lodge book, but no pay.

Travelling members working three days in one week are not entitled to any pay for that week. The relieving officer informs the traveller if there is employment in the town, and if not, the likeliest place to obtain it. Each traveller must endeavour to obtain employment, and any one refusing employment, and leaving the place, is reported to the general secretary, who instructs the various secretaries to detain his card and forward it to the general office.

The limit for travelling pay is seven weeks in one year. Travelling members may remain in London six days, and in other large cities or towns three days, but are not paid for longer.

Members obtaining employment where there is no lodge must report the fact to their own lodge within two days, and if obtaining employment where there is a lodge, must deposit their card with the secretary.

Call books are kept at the lodge-house for members out of work to sign, and when an employer sends for a man the first on the list must accept or go to the bottom. In addition to this, members are supposed to look for work, and to do their best to obtain it.

There are no rules providing for sharing work in times of depression, but with the tacit consent of the employers it is customary to work three-quarters or half-time in such cases.

The Amalgamated Society of House Decorators and Painters does not provide by its rules either for out-of-work or travelling benefit. Each branch keeps a book called the trade call-book, which any member not out of benefit is entitled to sign and examine, but it is not compulsory for any person calling for men to take them in rotation from this book. Members who know where employment may be obtained enter, if possible, a memorandum of the fact in the trade call book, or communicate with members whose names are written therein, or with the secretary of the branch.

Some few branches have what are known as winter funds, for the purpose of enabling the members to afford mutual assistance to such of their number as may be out of employment during the three winter months from the first day of December to the last day of February.

Only branch members of twelve months' standing are eligible to become members of these funds, one month's notice of their desire to join being necessary, and the election taking place by

ballot. Members on entering are required to pay $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the existing capital, one half on proposition and the other half on election, but no members are admitted after the last Saturday in October until the next year.

The contributions are 25s. per annum, and 1s. per annum to the management fund, which amounts are payable in one sum or periodically. Members not clearing the books by the last Saturday in October, (or one week later by the payment of 1s. fine) have their names erased and forfeit all moneys paid.

When out of employment members receive benefit at the rate of 1s. 6d. per day, or such other pay as the committee may determine with the approval of the members at the last meeting in November. Members working 16 hours in a week are not entitled to receive any benefit for that week, and when working for a portion of a day are not entitled for that day. In all cases the out-of-work book must be signed between 11 and 12 o'clock in the forenoon, or between 3 and 4 in the afternoon by those capable of taking employment.

Members refusing work when offered, or losing employment through wilful neglect, forfeit all claim on the fund for four weeks; and if detected in imposing on the fund in any way forfeit all money they may have paid, and are not allowed to be members of the fund.

Members of the society must join this fund within three years, or they are not allowed to do so at any future time. Those wishing to rejoin, if re-elected are admitted as new members, and those who have been unable to pay the whole of their contributions for the previous year are exempt from entrance fee, provided they have paid not less than 15s.

The total amount received is divided into 14 portions, 13 being used for benefits, &c., and one held in reserve. In the event of the funds increasing, the out of-work pay is usually increased with the view of keeping down the amount, so that other members may more easily join.

The National Amalgamated Society of Operative House and Ship Painters pays no travelling benefit, but all free members who were under 40 years of age when admitted are entitled to the sum of 7s. per week for eight weeks, should they be out of employment between the first day of December and the last day of February.

Those entitled to this benefit attend at their branch meeting-house every day between certain hours to subscribe their names to the vacant-book, which is open to the inspection of employers requiring men.

Those earning more than 7s. at the trade in any week are not entitled to benefit for that week; if earning less, the balance is paid them from the funds; they may, however, earn any sum not exceeding 5s. at casual employment outside the trade.

Members not accepting work at the trade when offered, losing their employment through misconduct, or leaving of their own

accord without a satisfactory cause during the three winter months, forfeit six weeks' pay.

All free members are also eligible to the benefits of the contingent and benevolent fund, which is used for the purpose of relieving cases of distress recommended by the branches, and approved of by the executive council.

(d.) PRINTING, BOOKBINDING, AND KINDRED TRADES.

In no group of industries is more attention paid to the question of finding employment for members, and relieving them while out of work, than in the Printing and Bookbinding trades.

The methods adopted are very varied, and those employed by some of the chief unions are sufficiently interesting to warrant a somewhat full description.

The London Society of Compositors in its present form has sprung to some extent from an association of compositors commonly known as a "Gift." * The primary objects of a "Gift" are "to procure situations for members," and "to afford them temporary relief when out of employment." The number of members in a "Gift" is limited (usually to 100), and no compositor is eligible for admission who is not a member of the London Society of Compositors, or who has at any time worked in antagonism to the rules and customs of the trade. Considerable care is exercised in the selection of members, who are elected by ballot, the proposer and seconder of a candidate being held responsible for his character and ability. A list of members with their private addresses, and also the offices in which they are employed, is printed annually, and supplied to each member in order that, when one of their number is out of employment, he may be communicated with in preference to a non-member of a "Gift" or a member of the trade society only. In this way the members of "The Old London Society of Compositors" were able to find employment for those of their number who, through slackness of work or other causes, were temporarily displaced, but with the growth of the parent society the number of "Gifts" increased, one called "The Lions" being established in 1858, and several others springing up subsequently. The rules of these various "Gifts" are similar in character, and it will, therefore, suffice if a brief description be given of the methods pursued by the oldest of them for dealing with the unemployed members.

A call-book is kept at the bar of the society house, in which members in want of employment insert their names on showing their card to the landlord, no member being eligible to sign who is not in a position to accept work. Members signing the book

* This "Gift," though usually spoken of as "The Herrings," owing to "The Three Herrings" having been the sign of the house where the meetings were formerly held, is still called "The Old London Society of Compositors," having been established in September 1816.

must answer a "call" for workmen, and obtain the signature of the person making it to a voucher provided for that purpose, to the effect that such call has been answered, vouchers being filled up and returned to the society house the same day the call is made.

This call-book is made up so that the weeks begin and end on the same days as the out-of-work book of the trade society. A free member out of employment may receive 8s. per week for eight weeks in twelve calendar months, and provision is made that if the fund is at any time reduced to 10*l.*, payments shall be reduced to 3s. per week, and if reduced to 7*l.*, all benefit shall cease until 10*l.* be reached.

Members claiming this benefit must sign the book daily, and are then entitled to receive the sum of 1s. 4*d.* for each signature. A claimant obtaining partial employment during the week, whose wages do not amount to 18s. is entitled to receive an allowance, which, together with the wages earned amounts to 18s. Thus, a man earning 10s. only would receive 8s., and a man earning 17s. would receive 1s. per week.

Those who have their earnings made up to the maximum of 16s. by the parent trade society are entitled to a sum not exceeding 6s. from the "Gift," provided that they have signed the call-book a sufficient number of times.

Members of the "Gift" who have forfeited a situation through neglect or misconduct, or left their employer or their companions dishonourably, are either expelled or suffer such other penalty as a quarterly or general meeting may determine.

Recently an attack has been made upon "Gifts," with the result that they have been condemned by the London Society of Compositors as detrimental to the interests of that body.*

So far as the oldest of these "Gifts" is concerned, payments were made to unemployed members prior to the establishment of an out-of-work benefit by the London Society of Compositors itself. It appears that from 1848 to 1860 it was optional with the members of the society to subscribe or not to a fund which at that time was called the provident fund, though amounts ranging from 52*l.* to 731*l.* were voted from the society's funds for the relief of unemployed members during the years named. In 1861, however, this benefit was made one of the principal features of the society's aims and objects. During 1892 nearly 12,000*l.* was paid to 2,256 unemployed members out of an average membership for the year of 9,500.

The following summary of rules will explain the conditions under which unemployed benefit is paid by the London Society of Compositors:—

Every member who has completed one year of membership (except in cases specially provided for) is entitled, when unemployed, to the sum of 9*l.* 12s. per year, viz., 16 weeks at 12s. per week, i.e., from January to July inclusive, seven weeks, and from August to December inclusive, nine weeks; any member receiving only partial benefit during the first

* A ballot of the members on the question, "Shall the rules be altered to prevent 'any member of a 'Gift' being a member of the Society?" resulted in an affirmative reply by a majority of 860. How far this decision can be made retrospective and applicable to the members of the existing "Gifts" remains to be seen.

half-year being entitled to the residue of 9*l.* 12*s.* during the last half-year, should he require it; such relief not being extended unless a ballot of the members be taken thereon.

No member can claim the unemployed allowance who is in receipt of money from the society as a strike hand; or who does not produce a satisfactory document that he is eligible to receive the same.

Every member claiming this benefit must insert his name in the call-book (excepting members 60 years of age and upwards, paying a subscription of 3*d.* per week), and also in the unemployed claim book, kept for the purpose at the society house, and sign his name once each day, between the hours of 9 and 1 o'clock. The number of entries is cast up each Saturday, and only those paid for which appear in the books; each signature being rated at 2*s.* Should any member sign the books for another, such signature is considered invalid; the member so signing is fined the sum of 5*s.*; and the member for whom such signature is made thereby forfeits the day's pay, subject to appeal to the committee.

Any claimant obtaining partial employment during the week (*i.e.*, from Monday to Saturday), in which he signs the call and unemployed claim books, and earning less than 16*s.*, has such sum made up to him upon producing the signature of the father of the chapel* where he was employed to the effect that the sum certified is the total amount earned up to the writing of the bill. Any member, being otherwise entirely unemployed during the week, obtaining one night's casual employment, *viz.*, between 6 p.m. and 8 a.m. and his earnings for that night not amounting to 19*s.*, has the same made up to 19*s.*, provided the sum earned is not less than 7*s.*

The secretary has power to refuse payment to any claimant who is not sober at the time he applies for the same; or on receiving a declaration signed by any member of the society as to the claimant's ineligibility to receive the benefit. The cause and circumstances of such refusal are laid before the committee; and if the statements are not proved, the member receives the allowance.

Any member losing his situation, whether casual or otherwise, from neglect or irregularity, or being, through intemperance, unable to work when required, is suspended for such time as the committee may determine, and on a repetition of the offence is either still further suspended or excluded, and not again admitted without the sanction of a general or delegate meeting.

Any member who is not in a position to take work offered him, or who refuses to accept, or fails to do his best to procure employment, is suspended from benefit for such period as the committee may determine. Any member intoxicated on the premises has his name erased from the books for the day.

No member is eligible to receive unemployed relief who follows any other occupation to the detriment of his calling as a compositor, or who is unable to satisfy the committee that he is unemployed.

No member who has been ill for any period exceeding one month is entitled to unemployed relief until he shall have produced a medical certificate as to his ability to resume work; and if upon examination a member is found to be unable to work at the business, he is suspended from benefit until he can produce a medical certificate of his ability to resume work.

In addition to the maximum sum provided by rule, frequent extensions have of late years been found necessary, the following

* An official appointed in each shop by the workmen to look after their interests.

table giving detailed particulars of the amounts paid to unemployed members from 1883 to 1892 inclusive :—

Year.	No. of Mem- bers.	Sub- scriptions.	No. of Claim- ants.	Percentage of Claimants to Total of Member- ship.	Total yearly Payments to Unemployed Members.	Average Relief to each Claimant.	Maximum Yearly Relief.
		£ s. d.			£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1883	5,850	9,227 3 5	1,227	21.0	4,140 3 11	3 7 5½	9 12 0
1884	6,175	9,991 9 9	1,209	19.6	4,005 6 10	3 6 3	9 12 0
1885	6,435	10,509 5 4	1,435	22.3	5,267 17 11	3 13 5	15 8 0
1886	6,585	10,430 1 3	1,465	22.1	5,442 4 2	3 14 9½	18 6 0
1887	7,025	11,313 10 3	1,489	20.3	4,743 10 10	3 6 4½	9 12 0
1888	7,400	11,963 10 6	1,555	21.0	5,544 6 5	3 11 3½	12 12 0
1889	7,955	12,892 0 10	1,505	18.9	5,188 11 5	3 8 11½	13 4 0
1890	8,910	15,004 1 3	1,545	17.3	5,539 0 9	3 11 8½	13 4 0
1891	9,250	16,679 14 7	2,031	21.7	10,638 13 8	5 4 9½	20 8 0
1892	9,798	18,178 12 1	2,256	23.0	11,906 6 4	5 5 6½	19 16 0

With regard to the mode of obtaining employment the following are the regulations adopted by this society with respect to applications made by employers and others for workmen :—

The call-book, in which unemployed compositors insert their names in numerical order, is open from 8.30 a.m. till 6 p.m. from Monday till Friday, and from 8.30 a.m. till 3 p.m. on Saturday.

At 10 o'clock every morning the names on the book the previous day are called over in numerical order, and, on answer being made, are inserted in the current day's list in like order. Any member wishing to sign prior to 10 o'clock, places his name on the paper provided for that purpose, which is considered as equivalent to his presence on his name being called.

Any member writing another member's name in the book forfeits his own position as well as that of the person for whom he signs.

No member is allowed to sign the book when in work, or unless he be in a position to accept work, and has done his best to obtain it.

- All calls for workmen received at the society house are given to the members whose names appear first on the current day's list.
- Any member whose name appears on the call-book must accept whatever call may come to his name in numerical order, or have his name erased from the call and unemployed claim books for the day.
- Employers, overseers, or their agents, may choose workmen from the list, irrespective of the position in which their names appear on the book ; but the members so chosen may, if they think fit, refuse such employment, unless of those present they are first in order on the book.
- Any member obtaining employment by a call or calls from the society house, when such work amounts to 6s. 4½d., on its completion, places his name at the bottom of the list.
- Any member obtaining employment through personal application, or otherwise (not being a call from the book), does not lose his position therein, unless employed or having work to go to the following morning.

- f. Any member who, after having obtained a call, forfeits such by neglect or irregularity, is suspended from all the privileges of membership for one month.
- g. Members sent from the society house bear a document signed by the secretary, certifying the bearer to be the member attending in obedience to the call, unless the person applying for workmen accompanies them, but no call can be transferred to another member except with the approval of the secretary.

The extent to which the call-book is of use in obtaining situations is seen from the following analysis of the book for the year, March 1892 to March 1893:—

STATEMENT showing the daily average NUMBER of MEN signing the CALL-BOOK each week, and the total NUMBER who were sent from the SOCIETY HOUSE in response to CALLS.

Week ending	Daily Average Number signing Call-book in Week.	Total Number sent to Work.	Week ending	Daily Average Number signing Call-book in Week.	Total Number sent to Work.
1892.			1892.		
April 2nd - - -	287	10	October 1st - - -	649	5
" 9th - - -	309	6	" 8th - - -	665	5
" 16th - - -	378	29	" 15th - - -	533	4
" 23rd - - -	485	18	" 22nd - - -	562	8
" 30th - - -	305	9	" 29th - - -	487	2
May 7th - - -	317	20	November 5th - - -	473	6
" 14th - - -	323	13	" 12th - - -	451	14
" 21st - - -	316	12	" 19th - - -	331	19
" 28th - - -	291	19	" 26th - - -	235	31
June 4th - - -	313	13	December 3rd - - -	209	28
" 11th - - -	355	14	" 10th - - -	212	15
" 18th - - -	298	5	" 17th - - -	237	19
" 25th - - -	289	5	" 24th - - -	263	17
July 2nd - - -	328	13	" 31st - - -	464	10
" 9th - - -	426	—	1893.		
" 16th - - -	406	8	January 7th - - -	479	11
" 23rd - - -	418	7	" 14th - - -	401	6
" 30th - - -	333	—	" 21st - - -	400	7
August 6th - - -	532	8	" 28th - - -	471	—
" 13th - - -	561	—	February 4th - - -	440	1
" 20th - - -	580	5	" 11th - - -	371	16
" 27th - - -	465	4	" 18th - - -	395	10
September 3rd - - -	572	1	" 25th - - -	341	17
" 10th - - -	623	—	March 4th - - -	335	10
" 17th - - -	694	—	" 11th - - -	342	11
" 24th - - -	716	9	" 18th - - -	309	9
			" 25th - - -	303	5

The above table shows the total number signing the call-book each week, and the number who were sent to work, but it must be borne in mind that there is always a small per-centage of members who, though eligible to sign this book, fail from various causes to do so, preferring to seek work rather than to take their chance of obtaining it by means of calls or other applications at the society house.

The following table gives an idea of the average number signing the call-book each day of the week. Members usually commence signing on Monday morning though their engagements terminate on Friday night, and employers requiring assistance of a more or less permanent nature generally engage men on that day, the larger proportion sent to work on Wednesday and Thursday being due to calls that are made for temporary assistance to get weekly newspapers to press.

STATEMENT showing the AVERAGE NUMBER of MEN signing the CALL-BOOK for each day of the week throughout the year, and the NUMBER who were sent from the SOCIETY HOUSE in response to CALLS.

Days of Week.					Average Number signing Call-book.	Total Number sent to Work.
Mondays	-	-	-	-	464	139
Tuesdays	-	-	-	-	457	60
Wednesdays	-	-	-	-	426	114
Thursdays	-	-	-	-	402	117
Fridays	-	-	-	-	401	69
Saturdays	-	-	-	-	340	18

NOTE.—In addition to these calls a far larger number of members are selected by employers or their agents during the year irrespective of the position such members may occupy on the call-book. The smaller number signing on Saturday is partly due to the fact that the receipt of out-of-work benefit on that day is considered equivalent to signing the call-book in some cases.

In addition to the calls that are made at the society house for compositors, many unemployed members are personally selected by employers, overseers, and others, regardless of the position which they occupy on the call-book. By far the larger number of engagements are, however, secured through personal applications made direct to the overseer.

For the assistance of unemployed members a "Compositors' Guide" is published by the society, containing the name and address of every society house in the metropolitan area and other information likely to be useful to unemployed members.

In some cases names and addresses of suitable men are kept by the overseer, who writes for them as he may require their services, while in others an intimation is given by the overseer that assistance is required and compositors employed in the

office are afforded the opportunity of recommending men specially qualified for the particular class of work.

In these various ways a sufficient number of capable men are obtained even in times of great pressure.

In addition to these methods of dealing with the unemployed, the London Society of Compositors also provides for the relief of an over-stocked labour market by making both removal and emigration grants to those who may desire to seek their fortunes outside the metropolitan radius of 15 miles.

Formerly by arrangement with the other Typographical Societies of the United Kingdom travelling relief was paid to members of the London Society when in search of employment outside the radius, members of other societies also receiving relief when passing through London. With the growth of railway, telegraphic, and telephonic communication, the system of travelling relief was found to have served its purpose, and was therefore abolished about 15 years since. In its place was substituted a removal grant, under the following conditions:—

Any member desirous of leaving London, provided he is clear on the books, is after three months' membership entitled, upon application, to a removal card.

Any member of one year's standing requiring assistance to leave London may receive with his card an advance of 10s.; two years, 20s.; three years, 30s.; four years, 40s.; five years and upwards, 45s.

Should the member receiving the advance return to London within two months from the date of leaving, then such advance is returned at the rate of not less than 2s. 6d. in the pound, earned or received as wages; and until it be repaid, he is not eligible to sign the unemployed claim book, subject to an appeal to the committee, who, if satisfied with the reasons assigned for his return, are empowered to allow such member to sign. Only one removal grant is allowed in twelve months.

In the case of members desirous of seeking employment outside the United Kingdom, or of proceeding to engagements in the Colonies, and elsewhere, the following provision is made:—

Any member of two years' standing is entitled to the sum of 3*l.* to aid him in emigrating; three years', 5*l.*; four years', 7*l.*; five years', 8*l.*; six years', 9*l.*; seven years', 10*l.*; and for every additional year's consecutive membership a further sum of 1*l.* until a maximum of 15*l.* be reached.

Any person receiving the emigration allowance, and returning to the United Kingdom within twelve months, must refund the full amount advanced at the rate of not less than 1s. in the pound earned or received as wages; beyond twelve, but within eighteen months, three-fourths; beyond eighteen months, but within two years, one-half; after which period he is not liable to repay any part of the sum. On receiving the emigration allowance, a member gives a promissory note to repay the amount for which he may be liable should he return within either of the

periods specified. All such repayments must be completed within two years, subject to an appeal to the committee.

Though the **London Association of Correctors of the Press** is not strictly a trade union, it may fairly claim attention next to the compositors, inasmuch as of the 350 members, 90 per cent. are practical printers, and many are also members of the London Society of Compositors. This association was established in 1854, its objects being "to promote the interests of printers' readers, to facilitate appointments to vacancies, and to afford a means of social intercourse between the members." Though no provision is made by the rules of the association for financial aid when members are unemployed, the average number of unemployed for 1892 was less than 1 per cent., so that it will be seen the primary object of the association has hitherto been successfully carried out.

No person is eligible as a member unless he has filled a regular engagement as reader in one office for 12 consecutive months.

Every member on his entrance pledges himself to communicate to the secretary every vacancy that comes to his knowledge. It is, moreover, considered a point of honour that every member should promptly afford intimation of a vacancy occasioned by leaving a situation.

The secretary keeps a list of members either out of employment or who desire to change their situations, in the order of their application. On receiving intimation of a vacancy, he writes to the first two on the list, and in the event of neither of them obtaining the situation the next two are written to, and so on, till the list is exhausted. If, however, the intimation of a vacancy be attended with conditions of any kind, the secretary pays due regard to such conditions.

During the year 1892, 97 declarations on the list were made by 44 members, and 75 (eight for less than a fortnight) vacancies were filled through the agency of the association.

In the case of the readers it is not usual for personal applications to be made to employers and others, engagements being arranged either through the medium of the association, by advertisement, or by letter; but vacancies that arise are almost invariably filled up during the running of the ordinary fortnight's notice, which is given or received prior to the termination of an engagement. A reader is therefore seldom unemployed for any length of time; while, as a rule, he has the additional advantage of being able to resume employment temporarily as a compositor if occasion requires.

The London Printing Machine Managers' Trade Society was established in 1839, its objects, among other things, being "to grant assistance to its unemployed or distressed members," and "to assist its members to emigrate." The following summary of portions of the rules will give an idea of the

way in which this society regulates to some extent the employment of its 1,550 members.

Any member in a regular situation, doing night or day work at another office than that in which he is regularly employed, without the sanction of the secretary, forfeits to the society all money so earned. Members are not allowed to "bring up cuts" at their own homes, an important portion of a machine-manager's duty in offices where illustrated works are produced.

Unemployed members of 12 months' standing are paid at the rate of 10s. per week for 13 weeks, provided they joined previous to the age of 35 years; from 35 to 40 years, 9s. per week; 40 to 45 years, 8s. per week. In the case of those only partially employed money earned is made up, if necessary, to the amount to which they are entitled according to the above scale. Members who receive the sum of 6l. 10s. during any six months are not again entitled to benefit until the expiration of 13 weeks.

When an unemployed member does one night's work only during the week he is entitled to 2s. 6d.

Unemployed members attend at the society house daily, sign the out-of-work book, and obtain a ticket from the secretary, or lose a day's allowance for each day's neglect.

No member who is physically unable to work at his trade is allowed to sign the out-of-work book.

The secretary keeps a call book, in which he enters the name, address, and qualification of each member who is unemployed, such book being revised once a month. It is his duty when he receives a "call," in the event of no name being stated, to send the man whose name appears first on the list, and so on in rotation. Any one refusing to go when called upon to do so forfeits that week's out-of-work pay.

Any member receiving a sum equal to three-fourths of the possible amount of unemployed allowance for three successive years (exclusive of any extension), is reduced to half benefit until he has been clear of the fund for one year, and has worked at the business for at least 13 weeks, except in the case of members of not less than 15 consecutive years' membership, and 60 years of age and upwards, who are placed on the superannuation fund. Should any member designedly avoid receiving the said amount in any one of the three years, with a view of not being placed on half-pay, he may be suspended or even expelled.

Every member is bound to communicate his knowledge of any situation that may be vacant to the secretary, who must inform the unemployed of the same within 24 hours.

In order as far as possible to provide employment for members of the society, those working in offices in which they are the only members, must, when under notice, acquaint the secretary at the expiration of the first week, or forfeit out-of-work pay for six months.

It is the imperative duty of members seeking employment to apply, where practicable, to the overseer of the machine-room.

Members obtaining employment in the country, and falling out of work, are entitled to benefit by sending a letter to the secretary, countersigned by the secretary of the local trade society.

The amount granted for emigration ranges from 6*l.* to 15*l.*, no one being eligible until he has been a member twelve months, and no grant being made to a member who is engaged to go to a situation abroad.

Certain conditions of repayment are imposed in cases where such members return within a given space of time.

Contrary to the custom prevailing among compositors, machine managers for many years never sought work from office to office when unemployed, but waited at the society house until sent for. There is still an unwritten law prohibiting machine managers from seeking employment, but of late years this has not been strictly adhered to, though as a general rule employers requiring assistance send to the society house. With the ever-varying machinery used it follows that a machine manager may be a competent workman and still unable to take charge of a particular machine: a point that has to be considered when applications are made for men.

The Amalgamated Association of Pressmen.—Prior to the introduction of machinery all “formes” of type were handed over by the compositor to the pressman, whose duty it was to work such formes off and deliver the sheets to the warehouse man. Of late years the trade of pressman has fallen off, few lads now being apprenticed to this branch of the printing business only, though in some cases they serve the first portion of their time in the press-room. This society, which dates from 1834, has absorbed the other societies and “gifts” that formerly existed, and now numbers 375 members.

A call-book is kept at the society house which each unemployed member signs daily, under conditions almost identical with those of the Compositors’ Society.

Unemployed members are entitled to an allowance of 4*l.* in 12 months, i.e., 10 weeks at 8*s.* per week. Those obtaining partial employment during the week, and earning less than 10*s.*, have such sum made up to them, so far as the ordinary allowance of 8*s.* will go.

Pressmen from the country in possession of a travelling card of any recognised society, are entitled to place their names at the bottom of the unemployed list.

Members requiring assistance to enable them to go to a situation out of London are entitled to receive at the rate of 5*s.* for each year’s membership, up to but not more than 30*s.* under certain conditions of repayment if they return within six months.

The Printers’ Labourers’ Union was established in 1889 for the purpose of protecting the interests of the unskilled

workers employed in the London machine-rooms. The objects of the society are "to protect the interests and wages of the members, and when the funds are sufficiently accumulated to provide an unemployed benefit, and to regulate the relations between workmen and employers." All members are required to avoid as far as possible systematic and excessive overtime, and in order to enforce this rule the committee are empowered to punish any member infringing it, either by fine or suspension from benefit or in other ways. Excessive overtime is defined to mean "working more than one night and odd hours."

Since the establishment of this union a considerable number of "calls" have been made at the society house for men, especially for night-work, though situations are still often obtained by personal application at the respective printing offices.

The Platen Printing Machine Minders' Society.—

This union was established in 1890, and now numbers about 250 members, or probably 50 per cent. of those employed in the Metropolis. The workers are practically unskilled or semi-skilled. The trade is a comparatively new one, having come into vogue with the introduction of treadle printing machines which within the last few years have developed rapidly.

Among the objects of this union is to be found one to "provide provident benefit for unemployed members."

A member clear on the books is entitled to claim provident relief after 18 months from the date of his admission. He can receive 10s. per week for eight weeks during the year. A member claiming, signs both provident and call books between the hours of 10 and 12 o'clock, and if obtaining partial employment, his earnings are made up to 14s. a week, provided the deficiency does not exceed 4s., and he has signed the provident book the requisite number of times. Any member receiving full benefit for two consecutive years is not entitled to benefit for the next 12 months.

Members notify the secretary where situations can be had, and on leaving one they notify the fact to the secretary or the father of the chapel.

Provision is also made for cases of loss of work through misconduct, and of refusing or evading employment.

As a rule employment is obtained by members on personal application at the various printing offices.

The Printers' and Stationers' Warehousemen, Cutters, and Assistants' Union is a modern organisation, consisting of 600 members. It was established in 1890 for the purpose, among other things, of providing an out-of-work benefit.

This benefit is 12s. per week for six weeks, and 6s. per week for a further period of six weeks; no member receiving more than 5l. 8s., or 12 weeks' pay, in 12 months, dating from the time of declaring on the funds. In addition, members

entitled to benefit receive 2*d.* each time they sign the book. Each morning members declaring on the funds sign a book kept at the society house. Those who have received the full amount of 5*l.* 8*s.* in any 12 months are not again entitled to benefit until they have worked at the trade for 13 full weeks. Any member in receipt of unemployed benefit refusing to accept work at his trade is suspended from all benefits for a period not exceeding three months. Any unemployed member in full benefit earning 6*s.* or over in any one week has his money made up to 16*s.* for that week, and if in half benefit to 10*s.* for the week.

No member who is in constant employment is allowed to work night-work for another employer, or more than one night a week for his own employer, without the sanction of the secretary, such sanction only being given when there is no unemployed member who can do the job.

Employment, as a rule, is obtained by "calls" at the society house.

Members are prohibited from making an application for a situation before another member has actually left, without the sanction of the secretary.

The Typographical Association.—With the exception of a few towns, the most important of which is Leeds, this association practically covers the provinces of England and some portions of Ireland. The members number 11,000, and the head-quarters are at Manchester.

In the provinces, compositors, machine managers, pressmen, and readers are all members of one association, instead of being split up into distinct organisations, as in London.

With certain exceptions in the case of apprentices and persons joining the association on the completion of their apprenticeship, no one is eligible to receive the out-of-work allowance who has not been a member for two years, and has during that period discharged all liabilities to the branch and the association. The probation for members who are admitted between the ages of 35 and 45 is three years, and for those above 45, four years.

When claiming, members report themselves daily to the branch secretary, sign the call book, and leave their addresses. Those failing to answer a call are ineligible for out-of-work allowance for six days, unless a satisfactory explanation be given. Members holding regular situations, who agree to work short time, are not eligible for out-of-work benefit. No payment is made unless the branch call book has been signed at least four days in one week, and any member who fails to sign or report himself forfeits a day's allowance for each omission.

In the event of there being a dearth of employment in a branch, the association or branch secretary has power to direct the removal of members to a branch where employment may be obtained, members so removed receiving out of the association funds third-class railway fare, and those failing to comply forfeiting all claim to out-of-work benefit for four weeks. Similarly, a

branch secretary receiving from an employer a call for men outside the radius of his own branch has power to send any members signing the out-of-work book, their railway fares being paid out of the funds of the association, and the return fares being paid by the employer if the job does not last more than three weeks. Members so called upon are entitled to be paid for the first week or portion of a week the same rate of wages at least as they would receive in their own branch. In order to carry out these provisions, it is incumbent upon branch secretaries to forward to the association secretary, by the first of each month or more frequently, if necessary, a statement as to any surplus men on their books, specifying the class of work professed by such men.

Members holding any appointment which renders it impossible for them to fill a regular or casual situation are reported to the executive council, which has power to withhold the out-of-work allowance. No claim for this benefit is entertained, unless accompanied by a note from the father of the chapel, where the applicant was last employed, certifying that his discharge resulted from no misconduct of his own.

Subject to the above conditions, members under 50 years of age and unemployed, receive 8s. per week or have their earnings made up to that amount for any 10 weeks, in a period of six months, or 20 weeks in any one year: each payment, no matter what the amount, constituting one week. Members drawing 15 weeks' allowance only during 12 months are entitled to benefit during the ensuing year; but those receiving 20 weeks' pay undergo a probation of 12 months before being again entitled to benefit, after which they must show that they have had six months' regular or nine months' casual employment in the interval. Failing this, they only receive 4s. per week for 10 weeks in each six months, or a total of not more than 20 weeks in the year; after which they are only entitled to this sum in alternate years until they can show six months' consecutive employment.

Members of 20 years' standing, and 50 years of age, and upwards, are entitled to 12 full payments of 8s. in each half-year in any branch.

Those of five years' standing obtaining partial employment, and earning less than 12s., are entitled to have their earnings made up to that sum; those eligible to receive 4s. out-of-work benefit weekly and earning less than 12s. have their earnings made up to that amount so far as 4s. extends.

If it appears to a branch that men are remaining in it when there is no opportunity of employment, as proved by the continual receipt of out-of-work allowance, power is given either to a general meeting or committee to recommend the executive council to direct their removal to some other branch; and members failing to comply with the decision arrived at are debarred from receiving the benefits of the association.

When members receive 10*l.* from the funds of the association in any six successive quarters the local committee inquires into their cases, and forwards recommendations to the executive council, which decides what further payments shall be made to them.

Members neglecting or refusing to accept work when called upon, or losing employment whether regular or casual through negligence or misconduct, are debarred for a time from receiving out-of-work allowance or mileage relief. Continued neglect or misconduct renders them liable to expulsion.

In cases where it appears to a branch committee that members have thrown up employment without satisfactory cause, benefit is withheld till such cases have been adjudicated upon by the executive council, the branch committee having power to recommend suspensions.

Those drawing out-of-work allowance must remain in receipt of this benefit for three months before they can exchange for mileage benefit.

First and second class travelling documents, varying in colour, are furnished by the association and signed by its officers. Members forced to travel in search of employment are entitled to a first-class document, provided they have been members for two years and are clear on the books. This document secures one penny per mile, payable in every branch for any number of miles, not exceeding 120, travelled in one week, the maximum sum not to exceed 8*l.* First class documents may be exchanged for second class, or withheld altogether, in case of proved misconduct.

There are other regulations and restrictions with regard to the receipt of mileage benefit, which are too detailed for insertion here.

A map of routes is supplied with each document, and wherever there is a branch, members receiving relief must (except in certain cases when travelling short distances) choose their next route from the map, which the secretary enters on the travelling document, no mileage being allowed for any other route nor for any distance beyond that indicated on the map.

Travellers are allowed two days in branches with a membership of 200 or upwards, and one day in branches with a membership of 100 and under 200, for the purpose of seeking employment, and are entitled to receive two days' mileage (3*s.* 4*d.*) and one day's mileage (1*s.* 8*d.*) respectively, which is reckoned as 40 or 20 miles in the total paid for in any week. The branch secretary does not pay this allowance until the expiration of the period allowed for rest and then only in the event of failure to procure work.

On arriving in any town in which there is a society, whether a branch of the association or not, travellers must apply to the secretary for a list of the society offices prior to seeking work. While they remain, members are amenable to local and association rules.

Those proved to have neglected, or refused to apply for, or accept work when instructed to do so by branch officers are subject to penalties.

Money is not paid for indiscriminate railway travelling, but members desirous of going by rail from one town to another when the distance is 30 miles or upwards may, under certain conditions, receive 1s. 8d. on arrival. Holders of association documents sailing from a port in England in which there is a branch of the association to a port in Ireland or Scotland or *vice versa*, or crossing the English Channel, are entitled to 2s. as passage money besides the mileage due.

While the other typographical societies have abolished travelling relief this association has retained it, and under the encouragement afforded by the payment of one penny per mile, travelling of late has increased, so far as the members of this association are concerned.

In some branches of the Typographical Association, Manchester, for example, where 1,800 members are eligible for out-of-work benefit, members of three years' standing when unemployed are entitled to have the association payments supplemented from the branch fund by 2s. per week for the period prescribed in the association rules; and 20 years' members (consecutive or otherwise) are entitled, subject to certain limitations, to receive an additional four weeks' allowance each half-year from the branch fund.

Members of three years' standing obtaining partial employment and earning or receiving less than 12s. in any one week, are entitled to have their earnings made up to that sum. Those of five years' standing in the association and in the branch have their earnings made up to 14s.

Each claimant signs his name in the call book daily in the presence of the secretary before 10 o'clock in the morning, one day's allowance being forfeited for each omission, but no payment whatever is made unless the claimant has signed at least four times during the week.

When signing the call book, members must remain in the room or within immediate call until 10 o'clock, and those failing to answer a call without satisfactory excuse are ineligible for the out-of-work allowance for one week.

Those holding regular situations agreeing to work short time are not eligible to receive the out-of-work allowance.

Employers requiring assistance apply to the secretary at the society house for a list of members signing the call-book, selecting those they require, but members also apply to employers and overseers for employment at their respective offices. Members and non members are not permitted to work together. On a call being made the whole of the names then on the call book are sent to the office, but should one or more hands be sent for without the mention of names, the chance of such work is decided by lottery amongst those present. When a call is

made for jobbing, news, or machine hands, the draw is confined to the class specified.

If clear on the books, members are entitled, on leaving town, to the society's travelling document, and to a sum of from 15s. to 40s., according to length of membership.

No money is allowed to persons losing their employment through neglect.

Certain conditions of repayment are prescribed for those who receive travelling allowance and return within a specified period.

The Leeds Typographical Society is an independent organisation numbering about 700 members, 95 per cent. of whom are eligible for the out-of-work benefit, which amounts to 8s. per week for not more than 10 weeks in each half year, the period of probation being 18 months. Unemployed members pay full subscriptions.

Out-of-work members are required to notify the secretary, and also sign a call-book at the society house, failure to comply rendering them ineligible for benefit.

The society does not pay the railway fares of members sent to a distance, but if an employer outside the radius sends a request for immediate assistance he pays the railway fares of men so sent.

Members out of work are expected to go round to the various offices and apply for work personally, being assisted in that direction by the officers, who suggest likely places to call at.

It is usual for employers to apply to the secretary for men, in which cases a list of those signing is sent and a selection made. Many employers, however, simply intimate to the secretary that they require a certain number of men, though sometimes expressing a preference for particular individuals.

A quarterly circular is issued which gives a report of the condition of the trade in the district, based upon the unemployed returns and the secretaries' reports.

This society pays no travelling relief. What is called "chapel money" is, however, paid to travelling printers, which is the only relief that men travelling with probationary cards can get, amounting in Leeds to 1s. 6d. or 2s. a day.

The Scottish Typographical Association, with a membership of 3,000, covers the whole of Scotland, and has branches in every important town. There are no local societies in Scotland, with the exception of a machine managers' society in Edinburgh.

In the Edinburgh branch, all members after a probation of 12 months are eligible for out-of-work benefit, and pay full subscriptions while in receipt of it.

Members seeking work in any other part of the United Kingdom, who can satisfy the association treasurer at the headquarters in Glasgow that they have been unsuccessful in securing it, have their out-of-work benefit forwarded to them. The

amount of benefit is :—8s. a week for 6 weeks in the first 13 weeks, after the member has made his first claim on the fund; 6s. a week for 6 weeks in the second 13 weeks; 4s. for 6 weeks in the third 13 weeks; and 2s. a week for 6 weeks in the fourth 13 weeks.

Members, when out of work, are expected to sign a call-book which is kept in the office of the society.

Railway fares are paid when a branch secretary sanctions the removal of members to another branch. Single fares are paid, provided the job lasts three weeks, but otherwise the employer is expected to pay.

In addition to placing their names on the call book unemployed members go round the offices in search of work. It is customary for employers or their agents to apply to the union for men, those first on the roll being selected, except when particular jobs requiring more than average skill and ability have to be undertaken, when the most capable men are selected. Members failing to answer a call are suspended from out-of-work benefit for a week.

In periods of slackness there is no short time among the piece-men, but with the "stab" men short time sometimes, though rarely, is worked. In such cases the men may work fewer hours per day, or fewer days per week, or, again, fewer men may take an entire week at a time.

A monthly publication—*The Scottish Typographical Circular*—is issued by the association, giving the state of trade in the principal cities and towns in Scotland as well as in London and Manchester.

The foregoing conditions refer to readers, compositors, and machine-managers alike, but in regard to the disbursement of out-of-work benefit circumstances compel compositors to avail themselves more largely of that relief than machine managers, who are, generally speaking, very regularly employed.

The association was the first to abolish the system of travelling relief some 16 years ago, substituting for it a removal grant under certain conditions.

Members emigrating are entitled to a grant under certain conditions.

There is a local unemployed fund in Glasgow, but it is only used during periods of exceptional depression. The membership numbers 1,200.

The amount paid by the association for emigration benefit is supplemented by a like amount from this local fund.

The **Dublin Typographical Provident Society** has a membership of 850. Unemployed members are eligible to receive 10s. per week for 13 weeks in 12 months, provided they are clear on the books and have been members at least 12 months. Members pay no weekly subscriptions while out of work.

Members emigrating to America or other foreign countries are entitled to 12l. after 10 years membership. If they return

within two years they must refund one-twenty-fourth part of the money for each month they return prior to the expiration of two years.

The unemployed sign a vacant book at the society's offices. Employers requiring men can have them on sending to the society house, but this method is rarely resorted to. As a rule overseers communicate with the men direct, though in many cases employment is obtained on personal application.

The union does not pay the railway fares of men sent to a distance, but in some cases the employers pay, while in other cases the fares are advanced by the union.

Members losing their employment through neglect are disqualified from benefit, and under certain circumstances fined. If it be proved that they fail to seek for work they are deprived of out-of-work benefit.

The Amalgamated Society of Lithographic Printers numbers about 2,500 members, with branches throughout the United Kingdom, and there is also a society in London numbering 750.

Unemployed members of six months' standing, not being entitled to a travelling certificate, are allowed the sum of 5s., together with a note of recommendation to other branches. After a probation of 12 months they are entitled to unemployed benefit, ranging from 10s. 6d. per week for seven weeks to 14s. for 13 weeks, according to length of membership.

Those who remain unemployed after having drawn the whole of the unemployed benefit can draw a travelling certificate, but no money is granted in such cases.

Members receiving the whole of the unemployed benefit for any year are put on a reduced scale of benefits for the following year, and those receiving the whole of their unemployed benefit for three years in succession are rated as 12 months' members, except in the case of those who have been members 10 years and upwards, who receive not less than the rate at which a three years' member is paid.

When claiming benefit, members must bring a note from their employer or foreman to the effect that they have been thrown out of work through no fault of their own. They must sign the book every day, and hold themselves in readiness to take any situation that may offer itself, married men, however, not being compelled to take country situations. Railway fares are occasionally advanced, but no provision is made for this by the rules.

Travelling certificates are also issued, accompanied by a grant of 1l., to unemployed members of one to four years' standing, and 1l. 5s. to those of five years' standing, with certain restrictions as to the total amount of unemployed benefit which can be drawn during the year.

Members of 12 months' standing in possession of a travelling card, and out of work, are entitled to the sum of 1s. 6d. per day for six weeks.

A member who has drawn a travelling card must leave within 24 hours. He is not allowed more than three days' payment in towns where there are less than 30 members, or seven days longer in centres, except in London, where a travelling member can remain 21 days. Travelling certificates are issued once in 12 months and remain valid for nine months. No removal or emigration benefit is provided.

The London Consolidated Society of Journeymen Bookbinders, which dates from 1790, and has a membership of about 1,300, provides relief under certain restrictions for members out of work, or leaving London in search of employment.

The secretary keeps a book at the society house, in which the names and addresses of employers who require journeymen are inserted.

A member who has taken a place from the employers' book, must have finished the work or left the place so taken before he is eligible to take another, provided there be men out of work.

Upon complaint being made of a member taking a place from the employers' book for which he is manifestly unfit, his case is investigated by the committee, and, if thought necessary, a fine or censure is inflicted.

When out of work, a member who has paid 12 months' contributions, is entitled to sign the claimants' book for 10 weeks during any 12 months, and to receive 12s. per week (or for 5 days 10s.), provided he has not worked more than one day at any employment.

Those who have belonged to the society less than 30 years, and who have taken the maximum out-of-work benefit in—

Four consecutive years become entitled to 8s. per week

Five " " " " 7s. "

Six " " " " 5s. "

Those who have belonged to the society for 30 years and upwards, and who have taken this benefit in six consecutive years, receive 8s. per week. A member who abstains from signing the book for two consecutive years reverts to his former position, and is allowed to sign for the full amount.

Any free member intending to go a distance of 20 miles and upwards from London in search of employment, receives a sum of from 30s. to 50s. according to the length of time for which he has signed the claimants' book.

Travellers from the country are entitled to 3s. once in 12 months, upon production of satisfactory proof, but foreigners who have not worked in the United Kingdom and been members of a trade society therein, are not relieved.

The Society of Day-working Bookbinders of London and Westminster, which was established in 1850, numbers

about 450 members. Its rules and regulations are nearly identical with those of the Consolidated Society, except that 40s. is paid to a member going into the country (12 miles or more from London), in search of employment, which is deemed equivalent to six weeks out-of-work benefit during the year. If any member signing the book hears of employment in the country he is assisted in proceeding thereto to the amount of his out-of-work benefit for that week.

The Vellum (Account Book) Binders' Trade Society, which was established in 1823, numbers about 850 members.

Every unemployed member of 12 months' standing receives out-of-work pay for not more than 10 weeks in any one year, according to the following scale, when the general fund is below 500*l.*, viz.:—If a member one year, 5*s.* per week; two years, 7*s.* per week; three years, 9*s.* per week. When the general fund exceeds 500*l.* these sums are increased respectively to 8*s.*, 10*s.*, and 12*s.* per week. No claim can be made for less than four days, for which one-half benefit is paid, two-thirds benefit being paid for five days. Each member on leaving a situation obtains from the secretary an out-of-work ticket, which, on obtaining another situation, he returns to the secretary with the name and address of the firm to which he is going, the rate of wages to be paid, number of hours of work per week, and rate of pay per hour for overtime.

No subscription is paid by a member when out of work, provided he signs his name each day between the hours of 10 a.m. and 12 noon in a book kept at the offices of the society.

Employers or their agents usually send to the society house when in want of men, those who have been longest out of employment being selected, other things being equal. Members also apply personally for work at the shops.

While no general custom exists with respect to sharing work in periods of slackness, such a custom is in vogue in some of the best shops, by mutual agreement between the employers and workmen.

A benevolent fund in connexion with this society also exists, the primary object of which is the granting to members pecuniary assistance when in distress. It is managed by the society's committee, to whom all applications are made in writing through the secretary. Each case is personally investigated by two members, and the committee, if they think the case a deserving one, are empowered to grant any sum not exceeding 4*l.*

No travelling allowances are paid, but in the case of a member of two years' standing desiring to emigrate he is entitled to the sum of 3*l.*, which amount is increased 1*l.* per year of membership until a maximum of five years' membership is reached, when the sum of 6*l.* is paid. Provision is made for the repayment of these sums in the event of the member returning within three years.

The Bookbinders' and Machine Rulers' Consolidated Union has branches in various parts of the country, with head-quarters at Glasgow, and a membership of about 2,700.

It provides that for every full week for which a member is out of work 10s. shall be allowed. No member is permitted to accept employment outside his trade when in receipt of this benefit. Twelve full weeks' relief only is allowed during 12 consecutive months.

Unemployed and travelling benefit cannot be received at the same time, but any member not having drawn more than two weeks' unemployed benefit may take a travelling document, the amount drawn being deducted from the amount he may be entitled to receive on such document.

No member is entitled to unemployed or travelling benefit who cannot prove that he has either been employed during some portion of the last 12 months in his own branch of trade, or that he has used his best endeavours to obtain employment.

A quarterly circular containing a list of members is published with a letter "A" opposite those out of employment; thus enabling branch secretaries and others to know where to obtain assistance when required.

When wishing to travel in search of work a member is supplied with a document which entitles him to one penny per mile, and a certain number of payments (1s. 6d. each) for lodging, according to the distance and place. He is also allowed his deck passage between certain specified stations. No member can receive relief more than once from any branch during 12 calendar months.

A member out of employment and entitled to unemployed benefit who is desirous of going direct to any town in search of work may, on application to the secretary of his branch, receive third-class fare by rail or steambot, such advance not to exceed the amount of one week's out-of-work pay, viz., 10s., and to be considered as unemployed benefit.

When a member arrives in a town where a journeyman is wanted, the secretary detains his document and sends him to apply for the situation. Should he refuse to work, and the employer be willing to engage him at the standard wages, his document is stopped and forwarded to the general office.

Any member of six years' standing wishing to emigrate is entitled to 4l., an eight years' member, 6l. The number of recipients of this benefit is limited to 18 annually, a levy being made, not exceeding 3d. per quarter, to cover the cost.

The Society of Women employed in Bookbinding, which was established in London in 1874, also grants relief to such members of 12 months' standing as may be out of work, the amount paid being 5s. per week for eight weeks, which is the maximum sum paid during the year.

When out of work, members sign a book at the society's office each morning between 11 and 12.30, where also a book is kept in which the secretary enters for the information of members any vacancies in shops which may come to her notice.

In cases where members receive benefits in three successive years an interval of 12 months must elapse before they are again eligible.

(c.) TEXTILE INDUSTRIES.

The unions connected with the textile trades do not, generally speaking, make provision for want of employment to the same extent as those in the engineering, printing, and certain other groups of trades.

The most highly organised section of the textile group is the cotton trade, which is therefore described first.

The cotton trade may be divided into three sections, each of which has its own local societies, which in turn are federated into three separate and distinct amalgamations. These divisions comprise in general terms (a) spinners, (b) weavers, and (c) card and blowing-room hands.

There are a few other small societies which embrace one or other of the remaining classes of workpeople engaged in the minor processes of preparing cotton or yarn, or in superintendence or management; but the above three great divisions cover for all practical purposes the entire cotton trade.

The Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners does not itself pay out-of-work benefit, but all the branches, with the exception of a few small ones numbering about 500 members out of a total of 20,000, pay such benefit locally. The period of probation ranges from 6 to 12 months, about 90 per cent. of the members being eligible. No subscription is paid by members when out of work. Unemployed members sign a vacant book which is kept at the society house, and the secretaries direct them to the most likely mills or localities in which to obtain employment, but no railway fares are paid for members sent to a distance.

Members out of work usually go round to the various mills inquiring for situations, it being customary for the foreman either to take their names and addresses or to communicate with them through some friend employed in the same mill. This system obviates the necessity of employers having to apply to the union, but when such applications are made the most likely men on the register are selected by the secretary.

In slack periods short time is sometimes resorted to, but the same number of hands are required as when full time is worked.

The state of the labour market is made known by the publication of periodical reports, but these are said not to assist members to any great extent, as the condition of employment is pretty much the same in all districts at any given period.

No travelling benefit is paid.

Members of the association in receipt of so-called "victim pay" * and desirous of emigrating can receive one half the pay to which they are entitled at the time, and members in receipt of dispute pay can receive nine weeks' full pay for the same purpose. Emigration benefit is also paid by some of the local societies to all members desirous of emigrating, the amount ranging from 1*l.* to 7*l.* in different districts.

No association connected with the **Northern Counties Amalgamated Associations of Weavers** undertakes to find employment for its members or to relieve them when unemployed, except when they are thrown out of work through the action of the amalgamation.

In cases where mills are stopped through fire, failure of employer, or breakdown of machinery, members thrown out of work are entitled to receive from their local associations, on payment of 2*d.*, 3*d.*, or 4*d.* weekly, the sum of 3*s.*, 6*s.*, or 9*s.* per week for six weeks, provided the mills have been stopped for three clear working days. These benefits, however, are not paid in cases of commercial panic, lock-out, or dissolution of partnership.

The Amalgamated Association of Card and Blowing Room Operatives makes no provision by its rules for members when unemployed. Some of the local societies, however, provide for the issue of travelling cheques upon application to the president and secretary who must be satisfied that sufficient cause exists for the issue of such cheques, the number of which is limited to three at one time.

The mode of obtaining employment is by personal application at the mills, which is supplemented to some extent by information given and received by the branch secretaries at the society houses. No emigration benefit is paid.

Members of the **Oldham Association of Power-Loom Overlookers** who are prevented from attending their employment from any one of the causes specified below, receive from the funds (in addition to any sum they may be entitled to from other sources), the sum of 10*s.* per week for the first 13 weeks, 7*s.* 6*d.* per week for the next 13 weeks, and 5*s.* per week for the following 26 weeks, after which their cases are considered by the committee.

The want of employment must arise from a duly authorised overlookers' strike, from the performance of any duty on behalf of the association, from a lock-out occasioned by a strike of any portion of the hands at the firm at which such members may be employed, from a serious break-down, fire, or flood, failure of employer, dissolution of partnership, or over-stock of goods, or from causes over which such members have no control.

No relief is granted to members who lose their situations through incompetency, or who are discharged or suspended through drunkenness, neglect, or other improper conduct.

Unemployed members must attend the monthly meetings to answer their names.

* An allowance to members losing their work for special trade reasons.

In order to be better able to assist members in procuring employment, the secretary keeps a book to register the names of all members out of work, and the firms at which there are, or are likely to be vacancies.

The Pattern Card Makers' Original Trade Sick and Burial Society, numbering about 400 members, provides out-of-work pay amounting to 10s. 6d. a week for eight weeks in each quarter. Members out of work must sign the vacant book twice a day, and attend the club room each morning. "Any assistant known to solicit employment by calling on any firm shall be fined 2s. 6d. When no particular assistant is asked for they shall go according to rotation in the book." This society has a rule providing "exceptional out-of-work benefits" (i.e., 10s. 6d. for 26 weeks) for members who for 10 years have drawn no money from the out-of-work fund. Members who lose situations through their own misconduct, or who refuse work when opportunity offers are not entitled to benefit.

No member receives out-of-work pay until the expiration of 12 months, when he begins at the rate of 5s. 3d. a week, rising to 7s. 6d. a week at the end of his second year, and to the full rate of 10s. 6d. a week at the end of the third year.

The Manchester Association of Warpdressers pays out-of-work benefit on the following scale:—For the first six weeks 6s. per week, and 3s. per week for a further six weeks, at the expiration of which time the committee determine what shall be done.

Members out of work must report themselves daily between certain hours, forfeiting one day's pay for each neglect.

Those who lose work through their own neglect or misconduct, are not entitled to out-of-work pay, but take their turn on the list for a shop. If they refuse work while on relief pay, they are suspended from benefit at once.

Members leaving situations must communicate with the secretary within 24 hours, and those sent to a situation by the secretary must let him know within 24 hours whether they obtain it or not. Anyone knowing of a frame to let must inform the secretary at once.

The secretary keeps a list of men out of work, and it is his duty when he knows of a situation to send the first man on the list. Should such member refuse to go he is placed last on the list of applicants, but should he be unable to obtain the situation the next in order is sent. If any partiality be proved against the secretary in the discharge of this duty he forfeits the sum of 2s. 6d. or is expelled.

Members of the **Amalgamated Association of Beamers, Twisters, and Drawers (Blackburn District)**, who have paid eight weeks' contributions, are provided with an out-of-work ticket with their name, occupation, and address written thereon, and when falling out of work, they leave their ticket

with the secretary, who puts a number on it and places it on a file. The bottom card on the file has the offer of the first shop that falls vacant. Should this offer be refused, the next in rotation may make application for it.

When a situation falls vacant, one of the members working in the mill applies to the secretary for the name and address of the first unemployed member, who is communicated with. If either temporary or constant employment is thus secured for him, the sum of 9d. is paid to the member communicating.

Members out of employment whose names are on the file must take their ticket off on the first day they are employed, or failing this must pay the expenses of any member going for them.

In Yorkshire, the mode of dealing with the unemployed members of the woollen and worsted trades is very similar to that adopted in Lancashire, except that the workers are not so well organised, and are not, therefore, able to deal with want of employment through their trade societies so completely as the cotton operatives.

The West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association numbers about 4,700 members, all of whom are eligible to benefit after a probation of 24 weeks. Out-of-work pay in the ordinary sense of the word is not provided, but members who are thrown out of employment through fire, failure, or breakdown, or repairs of the motive power, are entitled to receive 3s., 4s., or 5s. per week when the mill is stopped from one week to one month, according to the amount of weekly contribution paid. No benefit is provided when the mill is stopped less than one week.

No vacant book is kept, nor does the union attempt to find employment for its members, though should the secretary or a member hear of a vacancy he usually lets an unemployed member know.

Except in rare cases, employers do not apply to the union for men, but members make application to the employers or their representatives for work.

So far as possible, work is generally shared amongst the men, though in weaving the tendency is to give preference to such looms as can produce work most cheaply.

Huddersfield and Dewsbury Power Loom Tuners' Society.—Members of this society when out of employment, are entitled to 10s. per week for eight weeks, but if obtaining three months' work and requiring unemployed benefit again they are only entitled to the balance of the eight weeks' pay. If retaining a situation more than three months they are entitled to a further period of eight weeks' benefit, provided they do not receive more than two terms of payment in one year.

Those unable to work on account of fire, breakdown, or stoppage through no fault of their own, are entitled to benefit when unemployed for one week or more, such benefit, however, not being payable to members working short time.

Members of another society that distributes out-of-work relief cannot at the same time be members of this society.

Members of the **Huddersfield, Bradford, Barnsley and District Dyers' Association**, if discharged through no fault of their own, receive 9s. a week for 13 weeks, but after receiving 13 weeks' benefit or the sum of 5*l.* 17s. they are not entitled to any more until they have worked six weeks and been 13 weeks off the funds. Partially employed members earning less than 9s. per week are entitled to have their earnings made up to this sum from the funds of the society, but in no case can either unemployed or partially employed members draw more than 11*l.* 14s. in one year.

Those receiving out-of-work benefit for two successive terms must work at least 13 weeks either casually or continually before being again entitled to benefits.

Members of the **Huddersfield Warehousemen's Provident Society** of 12 months' standing, who lose their employment under circumstances over which they have no control have an allowance of 2s. per day for three months in every 12, commencing at the date of the first allowance. Those who may be still out of employment after receiving this sum report themselves daily unless they obtain partial employment in any other trade, in which case they report themselves to the secretary once a week only.

Members out of work and on allowance who obtain partial employment are paid as follows:—

If employed 1 day in a week, 10s. is allowed.

"	2 days	"	8s.	"
"	3 "	"	6s.	"
"	4 "	"	4s.	"

If employed more than four days no allowance is made for that week.

Members knowing of employment must on the first opportunity acquaint the secretary. Employers calling for men have the choice of those on the books, but if no choice be made the names are taken in rotation. Those whose names are on the books must erase them within 24 hours of obtaining work. Anyone sending or recommending any persons not belonging to the society while there are members on the books, or in temporary employment, are summoned before the committee and are liable to a fine.

Bradford Stuff Makers-Up Provident Society.—This is a society which makes-up and prepares woollen goods for the market after manufacture. It pays unemployed benefit of

10s. 6d. per week to members out of work up to a total of 25l., then 8s. weekly until 15l. more is received, after which it falls to 6s. per week. Its special claim to attention here is that it takes work from merchants in a small way of business who have not employment enough for a permanent maker-up. Work so taken is charged at so much a piece, and is done in the Society's rooms by its unemployed members, who are paid at 7d. per hour which is somewhat over the usual rate paid outside. The Society seems to derive a profit from this method of organising work for its unemployed.

The Amalgamated Society of Operative Lace Makers, and the Warp Lace Trade Association.—Of the seven societies, more or less connected with the lace industry, these are the only two whose members are directly employed in the making of lace; the others being concerned with preparatory work of various kinds.

Although the two societies dealt with here are distinct organisations, they adopt practically the same principles in affording relief to their unemployed members. The Warpers' Association employs a somewhat different scale and methods, while the remaining four societies do not, at present, provide any relief for their unemployed.

The benefit allowed by the above two societies is 5s. per week to those members who have been unemployed one clear week, viz., from Monday to Saturday. This amount can be drawn for 12 weeks in one year; after which, the recipient must be at work for 13 weeks before he is eligible to this benefit for another year.

All full members—i.e., those of one year's membership—are entitled to benefit under this rule, providing their contributions are not more than 3 weeks in arrears. During the time he is unemployed a member is not required to pay contributions, except a funeral levy of 1s. for every eight deaths.

There is no specific fund set apart for unemployed benefit, the payment being made from the general fund.

During periods of extraordinary slackness of trade, when distress has been exceedingly severe, the union has on several occasions, when its funds would allow, thrown them open to all unemployed members for an indefinite period. In 1889, when trade was very depressed, about 800 members received out-of-work benefit weekly for a period of from six to nine months.

Practically there is now no allowance for emigration or travelling, the operation of a rule allowing an emigration benefit of 30s., 40s., and 50s. respectively, having ceased. It is almost useless for operatives in the lace trade to travel in search of employment, the trade being highly localised, and all districts being equally affected by any depression, and alike subject to the caprice of fashion.

A book is kept at the society's office, in which particulars of vacancies notified are entered by the secretary. This book is

open to all members, and used by employers, who frequently apply to the secretary when there is a demand for workmen.

There are no restrictions upon members seeking employment, except that they must not work at a non-union shop or at one in which there is a dispute. A list of the latter is kept at the society's office, and members are warned against applying for situations or accepting employment until the dispute is ended.

No general custom regarding equalisation of work in slack times is recognised; although in a few firms every effort is made so to place the orders that each man has his fair share. The lace trade, however, is one that abounds with technical difficulties, so that it is almost impossible to carry out successfully any organised system. There may be no orders on hand for a particular machine, and consequently the men who work it are thrown out of employment. This is one of the reasons why work in the lace trade during slack times is so irregular and uncertain.

(f.) CLOTHING TRADES.

Comparatively few societies connected with the clothing trades pay out-of-work benefit. So far as the boot and shoe trade is concerned few workers are completely out of work, even in the slackest season, the employers, as a rule, making the work go as far as they can without discharging men by lessening the amount given to each. The sharing of work in this way in slack times is also practised by the tailors.

The Amalgamated Society of Tailors, which was established in 1866, numbered on the 31st December 1892, 16,732 members. Neither unemployed nor emigration benefits are provided by the rules, but any free member having two years' successive membership, being out of work and desirous of travelling in search of it, is entitled to a card on paying all dues and demands to his branch, and giving the secretary six hours' notice. A member throwing himself out of work to go on travel is not entitled to travelling relief, and he has to give proof, on applying for a card, that he is out of employment for satisfactory reasons.

Any member refusing employment in a shop where such employment is acceptable to the branch is suspended from travelling benefit for seven days. Travellers are entitled to 1s. 4d. in any relieving branch, but not to relief a second time within six weeks in the same town. A member working four days in one week is not entitled to relief until the following week.

Anyone obtaining employment sends his card within four days to the nearest branch. The payment of travelling benefit is limited to those seasons of the year in which trade is generally dull. No one is entitled to relief during the months of April, May, June, July, or November, except by special order of the council, nor can any member be relieved for more than

45 days in the eight months between the 1st August and 31st March.

Branches are allowed discretionary power in giving a day's rest to travellers in cases of absolute necessity.

A traveller has the option of refunding the whole or part of the money drawn as travelling relief and receiving credit for the amount refunded if he desires to redraw his card.

Any member reported for leaving work unfinished for which he has been paid is not entitled to a card or any other personal benefit until he refunds the amount claimed.

The expenditure for travelling benefit by this society has fallen off considerably of late years. The amount paid during 1892 was 515*l.*, the smallest sum expended for a period of 20 years, the maximum expenditure being reached in 1877, when 2,041*l.* was disbursed.

The Scottish National Association of Operative Tailors was established in 1865, and, like the English Society, makes no provision by its rules for unemployed members, except by the payment of travelling relief.

Cards are relieved during the months of January, February, March, August, September and October, the amount of relief being 1*s.* per day (Sundays excepted) and 2*s.* on Saturday. No relief is paid on any card if more than four days have elapsed from the time it was last relieved, unless the member can show that he has had to tramp for a longer period without being in the vicinity of a branch. Two months must also have elapsed since the holder was last relieved in the same place.

The Amalgamated Society of Boot and Shoe Makers was formed by the amalgamation of a number of local societies in 1862. Journeymen working at any branch of the boot and shoe trade are eligible as members, and apprentices joining within three months of the expiration of their apprenticeship are admitted free.

When travelling in search of employment, members are eligible to a travelling book for 20 reliefs, but cannot receive more than one relief on the same day, except on Saturdays and Bank holidays, when they are allowed two reliefs. Where the sections are 50 or more miles apart, they receive two reliefs, payable on separate days.

Members cannot receive more than 20 reliefs in one year, 15 in the second year, and 10 in the third year, after which they undergo a probation of 12 months. At the end of this period they are entitled to a book containing 10 reliefs only for one year; after two years they are eligible for 15 reliefs in the first year and 10 in the second; and after three years they are again entitled to first-class relief, viz., 20 reliefs the first year, 15 the second, and 10 the third. Certain exceptions are made in the case of members of five or more years' continuous membership.

No one can receive more than one relief within three months in any one town, except in certain specified districts, London

representing two towns. The amount of relief paid in provincial towns is 1s. 6d., in London, 2s. per day.

As a protection to employers who give work out, every member is entitled to a surety from the society not exceeding 1l., and after he has been a member six months to a surety not exceeding 5l., the society holding itself responsible to this extent for the safe custody of materials entrusted to its members for the purpose of making up.

The National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, which was established in 1874, numbered 42,524 members at the close of 1892. In common with most of the other unions in the boot and shoe trade, no unemployed benefit other than travelling relief is provided by the rules.

Any member of three months' standing, whether out of work or not, can claim a travelling book from the secretary of his branch, which entitles him, while travelling in search of work, to 1s. 6d. per day from each branch of the union distant over 10 miles. After travelling 100 miles with no intervening branch he receives 3s.; 1s. extra being allowed when a member stays over Sunday. No one can receive more than 30s. in any one year, and any member having received 40s. in two consecutive years is suspended from this benefit for two years.

During the last few years the amount paid under this head has slightly increased.

No general system is followed in sending members to towns where it is known work can be obtained. The state of trade in each branch is published in the monthly reports of the union.

Connected with each branch there is a meeting or club-house, where members travelling in search of work can usually obtain accommodation. If a member out of employment shows that he can obtain work in another district, his rail or boat fare is paid by his branch secretary, provided it does not exceed 6s.

In busy seasons employers occasionally apply to the branch officers for workmen, but this system is by no means general.

The union gives bond to an employer for each free member to the extent of 5l. for materials entrusted to his care for the purpose of making up.

To meet the exceptional distress among the boot and shoe operatives in Leicester, the local branch advanced during the winter of 1892-93 about 2,000l. in loans to its members. About one-third of this amount has been repaid.

The Norwich Clickers' and Rough Stuff Cutters' Society is a local union, the members of which are entitled to an allowance of 6s. per week for six weeks, and 3s. per week for a further term of six weeks when out of employment.

Satisfactory reasons for having left their last situation must be given by the claimants, who must show that they have done their best to obtain employment. No one can receive more than 2l. 14s. during 12 months.

Those discharged through drunkenness, unnecessary loss of time, or other misconduct, are not entitled to unemployed benefit until they have been in employment for a period of one month.

All members are eligible to the benefits of a benevolent fund, which is used for the purpose of relieving cases of distress recommended by any member, but in no case is a sum exceeding 10s. granted at any one time, nor is a second amount granted until at least six months have elapsed.

The Journeymen Hatters' Fair Trade Union of Great Britain and Ireland makes a local allowance to unemployed members of six-months' standing of 10s. per week for 17 weeks in one year, but no member is entitled to a second term until he has worked and paid his contributions for a further period of 26 weeks.

Members receive local allowance in any district where they may be. If a member has causelessly left his employment, or by his conduct in a shop has endeavoured to throw himself on the funds, he is not entitled to local allowance.

The rules dealing with travelling benefit provide that no member shall take more than one turn in each district in 12 months, and no member is entitled to draw a second similar turn until he has worked and contributed 26 weeks. One month must intervene between one long turn and another from any of the three districts—Denton, Manchester, and Stockport.

One rest day is allowed as a rule in each of the following districts, viz.:—Bristol, Denton, Dublin, Edinburgh, Glasgow, London, Manchester, and Stockport. No member may receive more than three separate rest days, Sunday rests included, in any district in one year. When a member arrives in a district he receives a rest day and a Sunday rest if he is entitled thereto, at the rate of 1s. a day.

Any member may receive an additional turn to any district if he states he has obtained work there, but this is refunded in sums of not less than 1s. per week.

Any free member wishing to emigrate to a European country is entitled to a "turn" of 20s., but should he return within six weeks this amount is refunded. Only one "turn" of this nature is given in 12 months. There is also a "long turn" of 3l. 3s. to any member emigrating to a non-European country.

When thrown out of employment through fire, members receive 18s. a week for 26 weeks, at the expiration of which time they receive local allowance if entitled thereto.

(g.) FURNISHING AND WOODWORKING TRADES.

The Alliance Cabinet Makers' Association, which was established in 1865, has branches throughout the country, and numbers about 3,000 members, the head office being in London.

Contributions and benefits are in fixed proportion to the standard wages of the town: Members earning 35s. and upwards pay 7d. per week, and are entitled, after six months' membership, to 14s. per week when out of work; those earning 30s. to 35s. pay 6d. and receive 12s.; those earning 25s. to 30s. pay 5d. and receive 10s.; and those earning under 25s. pay 4d. per week and receive 8s. per week when out of work.

The application by a member for out-of-work benefit must be countersigned by a member who has been working with him immediately before loss of work. No one can receive out-of-work benefit more than eight consecutive weeks; eight weeks must then intervene before he is entitled to further benefit, and he cannot receive pay for more than 12 weeks in 12 months.

Two books are kept at the branch meeting houses, one for the insertion of the names of members out of employment, the other for the names of employers wanting men, and any member may inspect these books on showing his card of membership.

A member claiming support is required to sign the journey-men's book each day unless he is seeking work in a town where there is no branch. Should he look for it in a place where there is a branch he must sign the book there, and if unsuccessful must return to his own branch at the end of the week for his donation, bringing with him a note from the branches whose books he has signed; he must also state his whereabouts on the days when he did not sign. Members of London branches may sign the unemployed book at any of the branch houses that may be most convenient for them.

No one discharged from his employment through misconduct, or leaving a job unfinished, is eligible for support; and if any member refuses a job made known to him by another member, he forfeits all claim for one month unless able to give a satisfactory reason for refusing.

Any member of one year's standing who is receiving out-of-work pay, and has obtained a job in another town not less than 10 miles from his branch, may be given "fare-and-a-half," providing the sum does not exceed 15s.; and a member of two years' standing may be paid as much as 30s.; these sums must be repaid at the rate of 2s. 6d. per month should the member return to the same town within 12 months. No member may receive more than 30s. for travelling money during any one year.

A member of three years' standing wishing to emigrate to any non-European country is eligible for a grant of 3l. and 10s. extra for every additional year of membership up to seven years, the grant not to exceed 5l. If he returns within two years, and works at the trade, he has to repay one-half the sum by monthly instalments.

The Amalgamated Union of Cabinet Makers, established in 1833, has a membership of about 1,400, with headquarters at Liverpool.

Any member who has both worked and paid contributions for one year, if out of work, is entitled to 12s. per week, and 1s. for each child under 13 years, for 8 weeks if under 40 years of age when joining; for six weeks if joining at 40 to 45 years of age, and for 4 weeks if joining at 45 or upwards. Half benefits are paid to members of only six months' standing. No member can qualify himself for this benefit by paying contributions without working. Anyone who has received pay for the number of weeks in succession to which he is entitled, can receive no more out-of-work pay until he has again worked and paid for 6 months. When out of employment, whether in receipt of benefit or not, members are exempt from paying contributions by signing the out-of work book daily, provided the date of obtaining employment is entered. Anyone discharged through intemperate habits forfeits one week's support.

A member in search of work, on presentation of his travelling card, may inspect the book at the branch offices of the places visited, and is entitled to receive from the branch secretary his out-of-work benefit as well as 6d. for a bed for one night, or 1s. for two nights in certain specified towns. Travelling members who have received the full amount of out-of-work benefit are entitled to 6d. per day, in addition to money for lodging, and 1s. for Sunday. A travelling member of less than 6 months' standing is entitled to bed money only.

If refusing work from private objections without satisfactory reasons, a member is suspended from benefit until after he has obtained employment.

Anyone who knows of a vacancy must give notice of it to the branch secretary or place such notice in the out-of-work book.

Members who have worked and paid for two years, and who wish to emigrate to a non-European country, are entitled to a grant of 10s. for each year of membership, the total grant not to exceed 5l. Anyone returning to this country within one year and applying for re-admission is required to repay the amount received.

The Progressive Union of Cabinet Makers is a London union with about 800 members. To members out of work it pays 10s. per week for 8 weeks, and after an interval of 8 weeks members are eligible to benefit for a further period of 8 weeks. No travelling, removal, or emigration benefit is paid.

The Perseverance Cabinet Makers' Association is a small union of about 50 members, principally employed in the West End of London. It provides unemployed, travelling, and emigration benefits. Members out of work receive 12s. per week and 2d. per working day for each child under 13 years of age, for periods not exceeding 14 weeks in one year. Travelling allowances are granted, which have to be repaid by any member who returns to the same town within six months. Emigration grants of 3l. to 5l. are also made, one-half of which must be repaid by any member who returns within two years.

The London Upholsterers' Trade Society and **London Amalgamated Society of Upholsterers** are two societies conducted on similar lines. Members after fixed periods are entitled to 2s. 6d. for each day they are out of work, for not more than 14 weeks altogether in one year. Those who have received 30l. in three consecutive years cannot receive more than 7l. 10s. in the fourth year, and 5l. 5s. in each following year, unless one year has elapsed without out-of-work pay being drawn.

Any order left at the society house is given to the member first on the out-of-work list; if he refuses it, he loses one day's pay and is placed last on the list.

No travelling, removal, or emigration benefits, or railway fares are paid.

The Alliance French Polishers' Society was established in 1878, and has about 350 members. If funds permit, members of one year's standing are entitled to 12s. per week out-of-work pay for periods not exceeding nine weeks in one year. Those earning less than 12s. a week may have their money made up to that amount.

"Calls" from the books are given in rotation. An objection to the call of an employer must be stated in writing, and out-of-work pay is suspended until the objection is proved valid.

A member who is dismissed from work, or leaves without giving due notice, or absents himself for more than three days, without sending notice of his inability to attend, is fined and deprived of all benefits for at least one month.

The London Furniture Japanners' Trade Union pays 10s. per week for eight weeks, and 5s. per week for a further period of four weeks to its unemployed members. The opportunities afforded for obtaining employment are similar to those provided by the French Polishers' Society.

The Mutual Association of Coopers comprises about 30 branches, with an aggregate membership of 6,000. Each branch is governed by its own rules, some paying out-of-work benefit and others not, those paying sick benefit as a rule not paying out-of-work benefit, and *vice versa*.

To take one of the largest branches as an example—the London Philanthropic—it is stated that all clear members are entitled, when unemployed, to 9s. per week for twelve weeks, and 6s. per week for eight weeks in any one year. Members receiving the full amount for three years in succession are reduced to half benefit until they have been clear of the funds for twelve months.

In times of slackness it is customary for the employer and workman mutually to agree to reduce the working hours which under normal conditions are eleven for the first five days

of the week and seven on Saturdays, inclusive of meal times. If this reduction should prove insufficient, the men agree to limit their earnings to a given sum, usually twenty shillings per week, which is about 50 per cent. of the amount they could earn in a full week, all the work being done on piece.

When the days get short no yard is allowed to work by artificial light if any "blocks" are vacant or any members of the society are unemployed.

As only one hour of overtime per week is permitted under any circumstances, and sixpence extra is charged, overtime is seldom resorted to.

The cooperage trade is invariably slack in the summer months, but many men find casual employment at breweries, oil wharves, &c.

Members out of work going to a branch of the association are entitled on production of their travelling cards, to the sum of 2s. 6d. No branch may grant travelling money to members to go into a town where trade is slack.

Travelling in search of employment is but little resorted to, a monthly report being published, giving the state of trade in the various branches, which reduces to a minimum the necessity for travelling.

(h.) COAL MINING INDUSTRY.

With the exception of the unions specially referred to hereafter it is not customary for the various organisations connected with the mining industry to make provision against want of employment, dullness of trade being generally met by reducing the number of working days per week. Grants of money are sometimes made in certain districts in times of severe depression, but no systematic course is usually adopted, nor has any scheme been devised for assisting those who may be thrown out of employment in one district and who are desirous of seeking work elsewhere. For example, little or no provision is made against the evils arising from want of employment in such important mining districts as those of Lancashire, Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, Staffordshire, Somersetshire, Forest of Dean, North and South Wales, Ayrshire, and Fifeshire.

The Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association was established in 1863 and has 17,500 members.

When the workmen of a colliery are idle through breakage of machinery or want of pit room for six working days in succession they receive, after having been members eight weeks, the sum of 10s. per week for 13 weeks, together with 6d. for each child under 12 years of age, and 1s. 6d. for rent money; and a sum of 7s. 6d. per week for another 13 weeks with the same allowances for children and rent.

Members dismissed through slackness of trade are entitled on obtaining work within one month to "shifting" money at the

rate of 5s. for the first mile and 1s. for every additional mile up to 36 miles, or 2*l.* in all. Those who have received unemployed benefit for more than one month are entitled to one-half the above rates for "shifting."

Unemployed members, whether in receipt of benefit or not, pay no subscriptions; they sign no vacant book and no labour register. It is not customary for employers to apply to the union for men.

In mining it is usual for the whole staff of workmen to be retained even though there may not be sufficient trade to keep the pit going more than two or three days a week for months at a time. It is only when the mine is wholly or partially stopped that men are discharged. The dismissal of men has, it is said greatly increased during the last 25 years, prior to which it was a most uncommon thing for collieries or portions of collieries to be stopped.

Travelling in search of work is not resorted to very much, but unemployed members are furnished with a card which is signed by the manager, local secretary, or checkweighman of the colliery at which work is applied for. These cards are returnable fortnightly and if three or four collieries have been visited it is generally considered that sufficient effort has been made to find employment. In times of great depression, however, it is not usual to issue cards, as it is considered a hardship to compel men to travel in search of employment when there is little or no chance of obtaining it. Unemployed members desirous of leaving the country are entitled to an emigration grant of 2*l.*

Encouragement is given to members wherever practicable to avail themselves of the advantages to be derived from the adoption of the Allotments Act, for the purpose of filling up their spare time.

The Durham Miners' Association was established in 1869, and numbers about 55,000 members.

When collieries are idle for a clear week or more in consequence of alteration or breakage of machinery, members are paid 10s. per week for not more than 12 months. If called upon to assist in preparing the colliery for work, members receive 1s. 8*d.* less for each day so worked, but are not entitled to any benefit for a week in which four days are worked under such circumstances.

In order to be eligible for benefit a member must have paid subscriptions for eight weeks and must not be earning money in any other way.

An unemployed member on finding employment elsewhere receives as a "removing portion" 5s. for the first mile, and 1s. for each succeeding mile, not exceeding 30. Clearance cards are issued to members going from one branch to another.

The Yorkshire Miners' Association, which was established in 1858, makes no payments from its general funds for unemployed benefits. A contingent fund has recently been

established with a view to meeting this want to some extent. The fund is kept separate and apart from the general fund and is provided by the payment of 6*d.* per quarter by full members, and 3*d.* per quarter by half members, supplemented by such levies as may be deemed necessary by the council.

The benefits provided are 9*s.* per week for full members, 4*s.* 6*d.* per week for half members, with 1*s.* per week for each child under 13 years of age. Members are entitled to these benefits when out of work for six or more consecutive working days, through no fault of their own, *i.e.*, when a colliery or portion of a colliery is stopped on account of repairs, breaking of machinery, inundations of water, falls of roof, explosions or fires of any kind, or when it is entirely or partially closed either temporarily or permanently.

Those who lose their places by neglecting their work, are not eligible for support.

No payments of any kind are made to members travelling in search of work, no vacant book is kept, and members who are out of work have to obtain it by their own efforts.

(i.) BAKING TRADE.

The Amalgamated Union of Operative Bakers and Confectioners, which was established in 1861, makes no general provision for unemployed benefit. In the London and some other districts, however, an out-of-work benefit of 10*s.* per week for 13 weeks, with a maximum of 6*l.* 10*s.* per year, is provided, which amount is increased to members of long standing.

Any 12 months' member travelling in search of employment is supplied with a certificate which, on presentation at a branch, entitles him to 1*d.* per mile or fraction of a mile travelled. This certificate holds good for one month. 48 hours' notice must be given to a branch secretary before a certificate is granted, and no second certificate is issued unless a member has held a situation six months.

The Operative Bakers of Scotland National Federal Union pays neither unemployed, travelling, removal, nor emigration benefit. In large centres there are houses of call where unemployed members attend, and where employers apply occasionally for men, paying their railway fares if requiring them to go to a distance. It is understood that members do not apply personally for work, unless satisfied that there is a vacancy.

Overtime is prohibited except in cases of great emergency arising from unavoidable circumstances.

In large factories it is customary in periods of slackness for half days to be worked, in order to avoid the discharge of men.

No attempt is made by this union to find employment for members when out of work, but at such times their subscriptions are reduced by one-half.

The Dublin Operative Bakers' Trade Union, which claims to have been established in 1752, allows every member who is not idle by reason of any strike or any fault of his own, the sum of 16s. per week while out of work. A member who works three nights or days in one week is entitled to 1s. only as idle money; if he works two days he receives 6s.

Any member going to work out of his turn is fined and withdrawn, and if he holds his employment against the order of the committee he is fined 5s. for every week he continues to do so.

The secretary is not permitted to send any member who may be written for by an employer, except a foreman who is required to take charge of work, but an employer on personal application can select any one off the walking list.

Those who are unemployed attend at the society house at given hours daily. A member marked off for work and disappointed through no fault of his own, obtains the next order that comes in.

Any member who, without reasonable cause, disappoints his employer by not going to work, or by leaving his employment without sending a fellow member into his place, may be fined 5s.

In the event of an increase of work that requires help, an order must be sent to the society house before 10.30 p.m., failing which the foreman and members in each berth proved to have worked short handed are fined 5s. each.

Any member sent off the walking list to work, who loses the situation through neglect, no other member replacing him, is fined from 1l. to 5l., which must be paid before he is entitled to any further benefit from the walking list. A similar penalty is imposed upon a member who loses his situation through neglect or irregularity.

(j.) MISCELLANEOUS TRADES.

It is not possible or necessary to describe the customs and rules in force in all Trade Societies for dealing with the unemployed. A few miscellaneous societies, however, are described below on account of various peculiarities in the methods adopted.

The United Kingdom Society of Coachmakers, which was established in 1834, is the only national union connected with this trade. It has 130 branches, and a membership of 5,534, comprising body-makers, carriage-makers, wheelers, smiths, vicemen or fitters, painters, and upholstery trimmers.

Members are entitled when unemployed to benefit at the following scale :—

After nine months membership, 8s. per week for eight weeks in the year.

After two years' membership, 8s. per week for thirteen weeks in the year.

After five years' membership, 10s. per week for 13 weeks in the year—

and one-half the above sums for a further term of eight or 13 weeks respectively. No member receives benefit for more than 26 weeks in one year or for more than two years in succession.

Those who are unemployed must sign the out-of-work book each day at the club house. They are free to seek work for themselves. Employers or their agents frequently send to the club house for men, but as a rule members at work make known any vacancy that arises. As far as possible, the man best suited for the particular job is selected.

Travelling members are allowed 1s. per day and a bed for a period of 91 days, and if then unemployed they are allowed 9d. per day and a bed for a further period of 91 days. What is termed "crossing money" is also allowed between different ports in England, Ireland, and Scotland. On arriving at a branch, a travelling member receives his day's pay from the landlord or steward of the club house, where, if possible, beds are provided.

The relieving secretary advises him as to his chances of obtaining employment, and has discretionary power to allow him to remain in a town several days if there is a likelihood of employment being obtained. Money may also be advanced to a traveller for tools and subsistence, such advances being repayable within three months.

The 26 weeks benefit to which members are entitled in a year can be received either as out of work or travelling benefit, or partly in each form. The ordinary weekly subscription is 1s., but while unemployed members pay 3d. per week.

No removal or emigration benefit is provided by the rules, but if an unemployed member obtains a job at a distance he is allowed to borrow his railway fare and subsistence money from his branch, on a promise to repay within three months.

It is customary to obviate the discharge of workmen when trade is slack by working short time. Most shops keep the same number of body and carriage makers, wheelers and smiths, all the year round, but painters and trimmers work fluctuates very much. This is due to the fact that carriages are built in slack times for stock, the finishing being left until they are sold.

No registries for unemployed members of the trade exist except those at the various branch houses, but some tradesmen who supply goods to coach manufacturers keep a book in which

employers from all parts insert a notice when they require men, *e.g.* a varnish maker and a coach trimming manufacturer in London each keep books of this kind, which are open to the inspection of any workman.

If there is a demand in any town or district for men in excess of the number that can be supplied by that town or district, it is the duty of the officers to communicate with other districts, informing them of the fact. Members in receipt of out of work benefit are not compelled to accept employment at a distance. Quarterly returns are made to the general office of the state of trade in each district.

The Cigar Makers' Mutual Association is the largest union in the cigar trade, and its mode of dealing with the unemployed is typical of that usual in the trade.

When unemployed, members receive 9s. per week for the first 13 weeks and 6s. per week for the next 13 weeks, and are relieved from the payment of subscriptions. After receiving payments for the whole of these periods they must work eight consecutive working weeks in one shop before being again eligible. Members obtaining work while in receipt of any portion of these benefits and falling out again before the expiration of eight consecutive weeks are only allowed the remaining part.

To prevent "malingering," it is provided that in all cases where members are in the habit of receiving full benefit, and of coming on the out-of-work pay again after obtaining eight weeks' work, the committee must bring the full facts before the general body, who deal with them as they think best.

While out of employment members must attend the society house on the Wednesday night of each week to ascertain whether there is work for them to go to. When discharged from their employment they must, before they can receive benefit, have a note signed by the society's shop "collector," stating the date of such discharge, to show that they left in an honourable manner.

When out of work and in receipt of benefit, members refusing to accept work at the regular price of the shop are deprived of further benefit.

Travelling in search of work in the provinces is not permitted, but railway fares are paid in cases where members have employment to go to.

No members are permitted, under pain of a fine of 2s. 6d. or upwards, to work overtime unless they first obtain the consent of the committee, or in the case of an emergency the consent of the president.

Members can apply to employers for work direct, but it is customary for employers or their agents to send to the society house through the medium of the shop collector, the men being

selected according to their ability to do the class of work required.

A general equalization of work is so far as possible obtained by the prohibition of overtime, and in slack times it is customary for members to offer to work reduced hours in order to prevent the dismissal of some of their number.

The Gold Beaters' Trade Society, which claims to have been established in 1777, provides out-of-work pay under the following somewhat peculiar conditions :—

When the funds amount to 20*l.* or more, out-of-work pay is provided for 12 weeks, and is regulated on the following scale :—

When not less than	20 <i>l.</i>	-	-	3 <i>s.</i> per week.
"	50 <i>l.</i>	-	-	4 <i>s.</i> "
"	100 <i>l.</i>	-	-	5 <i>s.</i> "
"	150 <i>l.</i>	-	-	6 <i>s.</i> "
"	200 <i>l.</i>	-	-	6 <i>s.</i> "
"	250 <i>l.</i>	-	-	7 <i>s.</i> "
"	350 <i>l.</i>	-	-	9 <i>s.</i> "
"	500 <i>l.</i>	-	-	10 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> "
"	700 <i>l.</i>	-	-	12 <i>s.</i> "
"	1,000 <i>l.</i>	-	-	15 <i>s.</i> "

Should the funds amount to 20*l.* only, the out-of-work members receive a share of the weekly contributions, after deducting working expenses.

Members who have received 12 weeks' out-of-work pay, must be in work 13 weeks before again receiving pay, when they are entitled to six weeks' extra, but after 26 weeks' work they again become entitled to 12 weeks' pay. Those who have received all their out-of-work benefit must report their whereabouts once a month to the general secretary or their names are erased.

Out-of-work members receive 2*d.* for refreshments on signing the book.

No one receives pay if he returns to the same shop within two days, nor is he allowed to refuse work when offered him on pain of forfeiting all claim on the society.

Those who come out of work must, within two days, forward their name and residence in writing to the general secretary, to be placed in the out-of-work book kept by him at the chief office for that purpose, failing which no out-of-work benefit is paid. When members obtain employment they must inform the secretary as to the date and the name of their employer within two days.

Travelling cards, renewable monthly, are issued from the central office through the branch secretaries to members travelling in search of work.

When seeking work members are not permitted to stay in any town longer than one month, unless advised by the general secretary.

(k.) WATERSIDE LABOUR.

The unions connected with waterside labour do not pay out-of-work benefit, and the only way in which as a rule they attempt to mitigate the effect of want of employment is by various methods of equalising work in slack times. One of the commonest of these measures is the penalisation of overtime by insisting on extra rates of pay after certain hours. Thus the **Dock, Wharf, Riverside and General Labourers' Union** states as part of the objects of that society, the enforcement of a minimum day's work of four hours and the abolition of systematic overtime. The minimum rate of wages fixed by agreement with the union is 6*d.* per hour for ordinary work, and 8*d.* per hour for overtime; when working in the stream 7*d.* per hour ordinary, and 9*d.* overtime.

The **National Union of Dock Labourers** limits the ordinary working hours of its members to nine per day on the first five days of the week, and eight on Saturdays, all work beyond these hours being paid for as overtime at specified extra hourly rates ranging up to double time for Sunday work.

The members of the **Amalgamated Society of Watermen and Lightermen** of the river Thames work upon the basis of Lord Brassey's award of September 1889, which fixed a working day of 12 hours, give and take according to tides, at a given rate of payment; additional attendance beyond those hours being paid at double that rate. Night work is paid at double the day rate, with a limitation to one job in one night.

The rules of the **Amalgamated Stevedores' Labour Protection League** prescribe limitations for night work and also restrict the length of time during which the same member may work consecutively without a break.

Another plan adopted by some classes of waterside labourers is that of rotation of gangs, so that all may share in the work. Thus the dock labourers working for a certain firm of shipowners at the Albert Docks are divided into five gangs, of which the one which has the first position on the list for one fortnight, occupies the second place for the next fortnight, then the third place, and so forth.

Again, the riverside corn-porters working regularly at the Surrey Docks are divided into 28 gangs among whom a certain rotation is observed. No casual labour is taken on until all these gangs are employed. When the pressure of work makes it necessary to engage casual labourers it is the custom for a ganger to stand aside from one of the gangs to manage such casual labour, being paid a certain daily fee for so doing by contributions from each of the regular gangs. To accomplish this the gangers take turn and turn about, the alleged object being to keep the regular gangs together.

The coal-winchmen on the Thames have also a system of dividing up work among themselves, taking turn and turn about until all members have been employed.

Among the ballast heavers no gang can get two jobs in succession, until other gangs have had a turn.

Schemes however on a large scale for equalising work, such as ordinary dock labour, among an indefinite and elastic number of low-skilled labourers are as a rule found impracticable as a means of dealing with want of employment.

The only cases in fact where such a system is found possible are those either of specialised branches of waterside labour (*e.g.*, corn porters, coal winchmen, &c.), in which the special skill or strength required constitutes a certain barrier against the influx of outside labour, or those in which a trade society with a comparatively high entrance fee has for the time contrived to control the supply of labour.

So far as regards the great mass of dock labourers the evils of casual and insufficient employment have sprung from the tendency to divide up such work as is offered among an excessive number of labourers, rather than from any system of concentrating it in the hands of a few. Recently in London, an effort (of which a brief account is given on page 238) has been made to meet this evil by classifying the applicants at the docks into grades, and employing all belonging to the higher grades before resorting to any of the lower. This scheme, however, has been carried out not by the labour unions but by the London and India Docks Joint Committee, and hence hardly falls within the scope of the present section.

Reference has already been made to the labour offices established by the Shipping Federation in various ports for seamen, and by the British Labour Exchange for dock labourers, coalporters, and other shore labourers. The general manager of the Shipping Federation states that 125,000 men registered at the seamen's offices between October 1890 and September 1893, and that from 4,000 to 5,000 a month obtained employment through that medium.

The offices do not strictly belong to the category of those established to assist persons out of work to obtain employment. Their nature and object are thus described by the general manager:—

“Our offices are only open to seamen, dockers, and coalies willing to work with union or non-union men as required, and in the case of shore workers, the registry is limited to the number of men to whom fairly constant employment can be offered by our members, or contractors who work their vessels.

“The main object at present of our labour offices is to maintain at the principal seaports a body of men, who may be relied on, to deal with boycotted vessels, and so avoid the necessity for importing labour from outside, into places already congested, and to this extent only do these offices benefit the local unemployed, by preventing their number being artificially increased at times.”

(ii.)—FRIENDLY SOCIETIES AND THEIR UNEMPLOYED MEMBERS.

The primary objects of an ordinary friendly society are to provide relief for members when incapacitated through sickness, and to insure a sum of money to be paid on the death of a member or his wife. Little attention has been given by these societies to the relief of the unemployed, it being felt that, from various causes, many of which are discussed in the previous section, unemployed benefit can be more satisfactorily provided by trade societies, whose members belong to one group of industries than by friendly societies whose membership is more or less open to all trades alike.

Something, however, has been done on a limited scale by the larger and more wealthy friendly societies in the direction of travelling relief, of remission of subscription, and even of out-of-work benefit, as will be seen from the particulars given below.

It must be borne in mind that prior to the passing of the Trade Union Act, 1871, many trade societies were registered under the Friendly Societies' Acts, the distinction between the two classes of organisation being sometimes small. It was not until 1885, for example, that the Amalgamated Society of Engineers was registered as a Trade Union, having previously been registered as a Friendly Society. It will thus be seen that in some respects these two important groups of societies are largely interwoven.

Among the Friendly Societies which assist unemployed members, and thus prevent them, so far as possible, from "forfeiting" their privileges by their inability to keep up the payments "attaching to membership," the first place must be given to the **Hearts of Oak Benefit Society**. For some years a voluntary organisation existed amongst the members of this society for the purpose of assisting those who through unforeseen circumstances became liable to exclusion through inability to pay their subscriptions. From an actuarial point of view it may appear a doubtful expedient to do anything to prevent secessions, the tables under which most friendly societies work being based upon calculations that a certain per-centage will secede. It is difficult, however, to imagine a greater misfortune happening to a provident man than to find himself unable, after years of self-denial, to continue his subscription. The loss of his savings under such circumstances is in itself a calamity, but even this is dwarfed by the fact that, should he obtain employment or recover himself in any way he may then be too old to rejoin his own friendly society or to become a member of any other.

In order to meet this grave difficulty, the Hearts of Oak Benefit Society (whose membership numbers 180,000, with a further 10,000 members in the Juvenile Society) established a Provident Fund in January 1888, by means of a contribution of 1d. per member per quarter, under which any member of one year's standing or upwards who is unable to pay his current contributions to the society may lay his case before a committee, who have discretionary powers to remit the payments due to any amount not exceeding one quarter's contributions (about 10s.). No member can be thus assisted more than once in 12 months, nor more than six times during the entire period of his membership. All such applications are made on a form of which the following is a copy :—

Hearts of Oak Benefit Society.

APPLICATION FOR RELIEF UNDER RULE 59.

The following is the Rule above referred to :—

DISTRESSED MEMBERS.

Rule 59 (New Rule):—Any member of one year's standing and upwards, who is unable, from want of employment or other distressing circumstances, to pay his current contributions to the society, may lay his case before the secretary, accompanied by suitable proofs of its genuineness; and all such cases shall be laid before any sectional sub-committee, who shall be empowered, at their discretion, to remit the payments due from such distressed member to any amount not exceeding one quarter's contributions. No member to be thus assisted oftener than once in twelve months, nor more than six times during the entire period of his membership; and should it be discovered that the member has made any false statement in his application, he shall be excluded. All such applications for remission of contributions to be referred (when possible) to two prominent members in the district to which the applicant belongs, for investigation and report. All moneys thus remitted to be provided for by means of a contribution not exceeding one penny per quarter from all the members on the society's books.

To the Committee of Management.

GENTLEMEN,

I, the undersigned, being a member of the Hearts of Oak Benefit Society of one year's standing (and upwards), do hereby apply to you for the payment out of the society's funds of my quarter's contributions due on the _____ day of _____, 189____, as I am unable to pay them myself, owing to the following distressing circumstances :—

(Here must follow a full statement of the member's reasons for making this application.)

Applicant's Signature and Number _____
 Address _____
 Occupation _____ Date _____

RECOMMENDATION.

N.B. This form must be signed (where practicable) by two members of the society (who shall give their numbers, and who shall not be relatives of the applicant nor residents in the same house), or if no members can be found, then by two householders, or by a clergyman, medical man, or magistrate.

•

We, the undersigned, are personally acquainted with Mr. _____ whose application for relief, as above given, we have carefully read, and we are convinced that the statement made is correct, that he is quite unable to pay his current contributions to the Hearts of Oak Society, and that the relief now sought, if granted, will in all probability prevent him from losing his membership of the said society.

If signed by non-members cross out the words "and number." {

Signature and Number _____
Address _____

Signature and Number _____
Address _____

Decision of Committee _____

Signature of Chairman _____

Date _____

PLEASE NOTE:—All necessary notices will be sent as usual to the applicant, pending the decision of the committee.

These applications are referred, when possible, to two prominent members in the district to which the applicant belongs, for investigation and report, the following particulars being so far as possible obtained by them with regard to the applicant:—

Occupation? _____ Age? _____

How long out of work? _____

Married or single? _____

How many children depend on him? _____

Does his wife do any work? _____

Is he, or his wife, or any of his children, afflicted? _____

Is he a member of any kindred society? _____

Do you recommend this case? _____

General remarks _____

The total number of applications for assistance under this rule from January 1888 to June 1893, when the membership numbered 175,000, was 4,542, but of these 740 were declined, leaving 3,802 the total number of applicants relieved. The amount expended for this benefit during the same period was 1,794*l.* 14*s.* 1*d.* These particulars are given for each year from 1888 in the following table:—

Year.	No. declined.	No. granted.	Total No. of Applications.	Amounts paid for Relief.
1888 - - - - -	133	511	644	£ s. d. 250 10 1
1889 - - - - -	194	600	794	238 8 7
1890 - - - - -	98	508	606	342 11 7
1891 - - - - -	106	705	810	333 18 7
1892 - - - - -	126	960	1,086	442 4 4
1893, half year to June - -	84*	518*	602*	237 0 11*
Totals - - - - -	740	3,802	4,542	£1,794 14 1

* Half year only.

The Manchester Unity of Odd Fellows, besides having a Unity Distress Fund, has also in a very large number of lodges Auxiliary or "Out-of-work" funds. In some cases membership of these funds is voluntary, in others it is compulsory upon every member of the lodge. The contributions range from 3d. to 6d. per quarter, and where membership is compulsory, the benefits generally provide for the payment of a member's contributions when he is either out of work or sick. A limit is usually fixed, precluding any one from receiving more than one quarter's contribution from this fund in any one year.

The Unity or Central Fund is maintained by a levy of $\frac{1}{4}$ d. per member per annum throughout the Order. Amongst the other objects of this fund is a provision for the relief of those who are obliged to travel in search of employment. Such member must obtain a "travelling" card from his lodge, which is available for six months, and entitles him to a relief of 1s. 3d. per day from every district through which he passes—twice this sum being granted on Saturdays. The amounts so paid are refunded to the district every year from the Unity Fund. Should the traveller represent that he has a prospect of obtaining employment in the neighbourhood, he is referred to one of the three principal district officers, each of whom is empowered to give him a written permission to solicit assistance from any lodge in the district. Such assistance is rarely or ever refused if the applicant can give a satisfactory account of himself. The amount granted varies from 1s. to 3s. or more, according to his circumstances and those of the lodge he visits, and is paid out of the lodge funds.

If the traveller succeeds in obtaining employment he must deposit his card in the nearest lodge, from whence it is re-issued to him at any time within 12 months if necessary. Whilst in actual possession of a travelling card the member is not suspended from benefit for non-payment of contributions; but the arrears which accrue must be paid within six months after deposit of card.

In addition, many districts and lodges have their benevolent or distress funds, from which grants in varying amounts up to 6l. or 7l. are made to members who are out of employment or in other distressed circumstances. These amounts are, however, often exceeded.

The Ancient Order of Foresters has also a relief system, which has existed since the foundation of the Order in 1834. A member desirous of travelling in search of work may obtain from his court a travelling license, which is valid for six weeks only from date of issue. With the license he receives not less than six orders of the value of 1s. 3d. each, and when five miles or more from his usual residence he may obtain cash for one order per day from any appointed officer or court secretary. On Saturdays he may cash two orders. The travelling license further authorises the member to visit any court of

the Order and ask assistance, which is usually given. The rules prohibit relief by more than one court on one evening, but this rule is not observed in practice. The help thus given by donations from court funds, and from collections amongst the members present at a court meeting, constitute by far the larger amount expended in relieving members in search of work, but the amount is practically unascertainable. An approximate estimate of the number of cheques or orders issued by the executive council of the Order may be formed from the following return :—

Year ending	Cheques returned.	Cost to the Society.
April 30, 1889 - - - -	2,572	£ s. d. 160 15 0
" 1890 - - - -	1,618	101 2 6
" 1891 - - - -	2,327	145 8 9
" 1892 - - - -	662	41 7 6
" 1893 - - - -	1,100	69 0 0
Totals -	8,279	£517 13 9

or an average cost over the five years of 103*l.* 10*s.* 9*d.* per year.

Travelling licenses were issued in 1891 to 166 members, and during 1892 to 168 members.

The Loyal Order of Ancient Shepherds, Ashton Unity, expended the following sums on benefits during the five years ending 1892 :—

	£	s.	d.
Out-of-work benefit - - -	1,397	13	0
Distress grants - - -	7,937	18	6
Exemption from payment of contributions -	1,397	13	0
Travelling relief - - -	141	5	6
	£10,874	10	0

These amounts are probably understated, as some branches include such payments in general expenditure for management. The amounts paid for these benefits differ very much in different localities, and are often largely influenced by the conditions of trade in each district.

The Independent Order of Rechabites, Salford Unity, had originally a regular system of relief stations, at each of which members were entitled to receive a certain sum. This system existed from the foundation of the society in 1835 until 1870, but has since been practically discarded.

At the present time, most of the branches in this society have benevolent or distress funds for the voluntary assistance of members who are out of employment, travelling in search of work, or in other distressed circumstances. It is purely optional

with a branch to establish such a fund. The contributions are $\frac{1}{2}$ d. or 1d. per month, and the payments made to members on account of these benefits do not exceed 350*l.* per annum.

There are no exemptions from payment of contributions in this society on account of want of employment.

The British United Order of Oddfellows has a travelling relief on similar lines to that of the Ancient Order of Foresters, but as it appears to have been much abused it has become almost obsolete.

Many branches assist out-of-work members by paying their contributions; and this benefit, being under the immediate cognisance of the lodge officers and members, is said not to be abused. There is no return made to the central body, but it is estimated that about 100*l.* per annum is paid in this society for out-of-work benefits.

The National United Order of Free Gardeners had a total membership at the end of 1892 of 60,486. During the five years ending 31st December 1892 it paid travelling relief to members in search of employment amounting to 244*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.*, an average for the five years of 48*l.* 17*s.* 10*d.* per year.

There is no out-of-work benefit, and no grants are made by the society to distressed members. There appears, however, to be some provision for exemption from contributions under certain circumstances, but this is a question for the branches only.

The United Ancient Order of Druids by its general rules makes it imperative that every district and every lodge shall provide for the relief of members travelling in search of employment, the amount (not exceeding 1*s.* per day, including Sunday) being specified. Members in distressed circumstances and those travelling in search of employment are relieved by each branch. No separate record is kept of the numbers so relieved, but the amount expended for these purposes during the last five years reached 2,220*l.*

In some other societies efforts are made to relieve unemployed members, by payment of subscription out of the funds or in some other way, but the returns are so meagre that they do not warrant any special reference in this report.

The majority, however, of friendly societies make little or no attempt to deal with the question, or if anything is done it is not provided for by the general rules, but is a matter of local arrangement by the branches.

(iii.) LABOUR BUREAUX.

(a.) INTRODUCTION.

Labour Bureaux or Employment Registries for members of various trades do not at present play a part in English industry comparable to that which they fulfil in France and elsewhere. Many institutions and organisations which cannot properly be described as labour bureaux, include among their functions that of assisting their members to obtain work, but the "Labour Bureau" as a special and separate institution, intended to centralise the demand and supply of labour, is hardly as yet naturalised in this country, except in a few special cases. Private registries hardly exist except in the form of registries for domestic servants (of which some account is given on p. 130), or for particular classes of persons who for various reasons find it exceptionally difficult to find work in the ordinary way (*e.g.*, discharged soldiers, the blind, &c.). It is desirable, however, to give some account of the operations of such labour bureaux under public or quasi-public management as have been established in various parts of the country.

Counting both permanent and temporary registries the Department has received information as to the work of 25 labour bureaux during the past winter. Of these 15 were temporary registries, leaving 10 which may be regarded as more or less permanent bureaux, viz., at Ipswich, Egham, Chelsea, Battersea, St. Pancras, Camberwell, Westminster, Bloomsbury, Wolverhampton, and Salford. It is possible, however, that this list is not exhaustive.

The temporary registries were for the most part started during the winter by London Vestries and other local authorities in connection with schemes (described elsewhere) for the municipal provision of employment. In London the local authorities were requested by the Trades Council to open these registries. In several cases the lists of names registered were merely used for the purpose of selecting men to be employed by the local authority, and no attempt was made to find outside employment for those registered. In these cases it is doubtful if the registries ought to be reckoned as even temporary labour bureaux. In other cases the registries were used for a double purpose: for supplying men both to the local authority and to such private employers as chose to apply. Finally, in a few cases, these temporary registries were conducted (with more or less success) as temporary labour bureaux pure and simple

Of permanent labour bureaux there are two main classes to be considered: those which accept all applicants for registration either without question or subject to certain well-defined conditions (such as residence in the district), and those which sift the applicants by some kind of inquiry more or less stringent. It is clear that the class of persons benefited by the bureau will depend largely on the extent to which this sifting process is carried. Where nearly all comers are admitted registration is no guarantee either of character or capacity, while the fact that a man has had to have recourse to the bureau is *prima facie* evidence that he is not a satisfactory workman. Consequently employers often hesitate to avail themselves of the bureau, the register becomes choked with names of persons whom no one will employ if he can help it, until finally the bureau may become merely a centre for the supply of casual labourers and lads for odd jobs, or a cheap registry for domestic servants.

On the other hand, the bureau which tests its applicants by inquiry thereby narrows its range of usefulness to the efficient members of the industrial army, and deliberately excludes the class of persons who form the so-called "unemployed" class and with whom, as a rule, relief works deal. This is admitted fully by those who advocate a policy of discrimination. To quote the words of the honorary manager of the Ipswich Labour Bureau: "Only men with good references should be registered or recommended to employers. The old, physically incapable, and vicious, must be left severely alone, to be dealt with by other agencies. An attempt to use the bureau as a means of disposing of the submerged tenth is sure to be fatal to its success."*

While, however, the bureau which institutes strict inquiries does not register so many applicants as that which is open to all, it usually finds work for a larger per-centage, and is more likely to be utilised by good workmen and good employers.

Among the bureaux which admit all local applicants for registration are those managed by certain London Vestries. The labour bureau, managed by a voluntary committee, at Wolverhampton instituted certain inquiries of previous employers. The labour bureaux at Ipswich and Egham make inquiries so as to enable the manager to recommend each man on the books to employers as "a competent workman and of good character." Both of these last-mentioned bureaux (which are stated to be the longest established in the country), are under voluntary management. As will be seen from a reference to the table given on page 118, they compare very favourably with other bureaux as regards the extent to which they are able to discharge their function of finding work for those whose names are on their books. Thus in the year October 1891 to October 1892 out of 458 applicants registered at Ipswich 150 (or 33 per cent.)

* "The Ipswich Labour Bureau (its Formation, Method of Working, &c.)," p. 5.

were placed in permanent situations, and 141 (or 31 per cent.) in temporary situations. During the same period out of 382 applicants at Egham, 289, (or 76 per cent.), were found employment either temporary or permanent.

It is now proposed to give some account of the principal labour bureaux.

(b.) DETAILED DESCRIPTIONS OF LABOUR BUREAUX.

Egham.—The first to be established in England (at least, among those still in existence) was that at Egham, which was opened in February 1885. The bureau is managed by the local Superintendent of Births, Deaths, and Marriages, who gives his services gratuitously.

The registry is made known by cards posted about the district, and by advertisement in the country papers. It is open to local residents, but others may apply, and if a vacancy occurs for which a local man is not available an outsider may be sent. The bureau is open daily from 9 a.m. to 7 p.m. The following are the heads of information entered in the register :—

Name

Address

Date.....

Description of occupation required

Where last employed

How long employed

Applicant's remarks

Date when employment is found and by whom

The registrar only enters the names of those whom he considers *bond fide* workmen out of employment, and as he is acquainted with most persons in the district, formal inquiries are hardly necessary. The local loafers are pretty well known to him, and they do not now apply for registration.

No charge is made for registration, but “all who may obtain engagements through its agency are invited to contribute, if possible, threepence per week during the first few weeks of their engagement, but this contribution is entirely voluntary.” The initial rule of the registry is “that the registrar shall scrupulously abstain from interference in any question of wages or conditions of service, or labour troubles.”

Following this rule the registrar declines to supply men to fill the places of men on strike, and no record is made as to membership of a trade union or wages previously received or required.

Postcards are issued to employers and men for them to notify when they are suited, and a fair proportion of these cards are filled up and returned.

The extent of the operations of the bureau as an employment agency is shown in the table on page 118. As is natural in a country district, the bulk of those for whom situations are found are gardeners, labourers, grooms, and members of the building trades. Besides the work of finding situations, loans are granted in special cases to redeem tools out of pawn, or to take families to other districts. About 75 per cent. of the money so advanced is repaid.

In the fourth annual report of the registry the opinion is given that in such bureaux "the antecedents of applicants who " may be personally unknown to the registrar " should be authenticated " if it is intended not merely to report a total " of all persons desirous of registering themselves as wanting " work, but also to attract offers of employment."

The success of the Registry seems very largely due to the fact that the superintendent knows personally most of those who are likely to apply, whether employers or workmen; a condition of things possible in a country district, but not in a large town.

The **Ipswich Bureau** was opened in October 1885, only a few months after that at Egham. The forms and registers used are more elaborate than those at Egham. The principal forms and methods of procedure are thus described in a recent account of the bureau published by the honorary manager:—

"Our method of working is as follows:—When a man applies to us for work, he is given a form, of which the following is a copy:—

No.

IPSWICH LABOUR BUREAU.

Established for the purpose of finding work for men, and securing suitable men for employers. No fees are charged, but donations to defray working expenses are solicited.

Office: Tower Street.

Office Hours: 9 to 5.

Dated.....189

APPLICATION FOR WORK.

Name.....
 Address.....
 Age.....
 Married or Single.....
 What Family.....

Trade (describe fully)
 Name and Address of last Employer
 How long in his employ.....
 Average Wages.....
 Cause of Leaving

CERTIFICATE OF CHARACTER TO BE SIGNED BY LAST EMPLOYER.

I certify that.....
 is a competent workman, that he was in employ as stated above,
 and that his character and conduct were satisfactory.

Signed.....

If the above is filled up and signed by the last employer to our satisfaction, the man is registered.

COPY OF MEN'S REGISTER.

No.	Date.	Name.	Address.	Occupation.	Age.	Married or Single.	How many Children.	Name of last Employer and reference.	Wages.	How disposed of.

If there is an order on the books to suit him, and if the place is near enough to admit of it, we send him to it; but if it is at too great a distance, we send particulars of the man to the employer who has sent us the order, and if he thinks him suitable, he goes. If we have no opening for him, we look up advertisements in the daily papers, and if anything likely is discovered, we send on to the advertiser the following form :—

LABOUR BUREAU, IPSWICH.

A Medium for Masters who want Men, and Men who are seeking Employment.

No Fees. Offices : Tower Street.

Telegraphic Address : "Labour Bureau, Ipswich."

Honorary Superintendent :

WANTS EMPLOYMENT.

Name..... Address.....
Age..... Married or Single.....

Trade.....
 Last Employer

Having satisfied ourselves that the above is a competent workman, and of good character, we shall be glad if you can find him employment.

We also advertise daily in the local papers such men as we have on hand.

ORDERS FOR MEN.

When masters apply to us for men, their orders are entered in a book, of which the following is a sample:—

Date.	Name.	Address.	Occupation.	Man sent.	No. of Register.	Date.	Result.

If there is a man on the register likely to suit, particulars of him are sent. If not, we do our best to get one.

INDEX BOOKS.

To facilitate reference we have an index to names and trades.

Index of Names.			Trades Index.		
Name.	No.	Remarks.	Name.	No.	Remarks.

It will be seen from the table on page 118 that the bulk of those for whom situations are found are labourers, porters, grooms, gardeners, and errand boys, which together make up over 70 per cent. of the total number for whom situations were found during the year 1891-2. During the previous year a still greater proportion—nearly 80 per cent. of those placed in situations—belonged to these classes. The management of the bureau is entirely in the hands of the hon. manager, but he is desirous that it should be taken over by the Municipality, and that similar institutions should be established in all large towns and federated together so as to “facilitate the circulation of labour.” Registration is free, and the expenses of the bureau which amounted to 98*l.* 11*s.* 3*d.* during the year 1891-2 are met by voluntary subscriptions. The bureau is confined to men and lads and claims to be neutral in trade disputes. The success of the bureau in placing applicants seems to spring

largely from the energy expended by the manager in finding situations for workmen, and workmen for employers. He does not merely register applications and wait for corresponding offers, but actively exerts himself to find suitable employers or workmen as the case may be.

At **Wolverhampton**, the centre of a manufacturing district, very different in character from that surrounding Ipswich, a labour bureau was established by a voluntary committee in December 1892. The bureau was connected with a relief organisation formed to deal with the distress prevailing in the town through scarcity of employment. At first all applicants were registered and 763 names were entered, of whom 294 belonged to various branches of the metal trades. The labour bureau, however, was hardly used at all by employers so long as it was connected with the relief organisation, and up to the time of the first report of the committee only six temporary situations had been obtained in addition to the work provided directly in the way of relief. The report states that "it seems almost impossible that " while there is any suggestion of relief employers can be made " to believe that any men are to be found except the 'sub-merged tenth' who are practically useless to them." A special sub-committee was therefore appointed to manage the bureau, which decided "that only those applicants should be " placed upon the register who could show that their being out " of employment was due to no fault of their own." For this purpose detailed inquiry forms were drawn up, which had to be filled up by the applicant and countersigned by his last employer. The result, however, was to arouse some opposition among Trade Unionists who regarded the inquiries from the last employer as an attempt to re-introduce the "discharge note" system. Practically the bureau is closed. Employers have not used it, and not more than 20 applicants have been placed in situations through its agency.

At **Salford** the labour bureau, like that at Wolverhampton, came into existence during last winter as an effort to relieve distress caused by the scarcity of employment. For two or three weeks registration was carried on by a private Committee in three wards of the borough, and 273 persons registered; afterwards a special committee of the Corporation was appointed on December 7th, 1892, to inquire into the extent of distress and to make proposals for its relief. With a view to make this inquiry complete the sub-committee opened a register for the unemployed in the borough. The following particulars were registered:—name; address; occupation; usual wages; length of residence in borough; where last employed; how long; married or single; number of children; and physical condition.

To verify the accuracy of those statements, the following postcard was addressed to the last employer :—

Town Hall,
Salford, 1893.

In the course of a Registration of the Unemployed Workmen in the County Borough of Salford, _____

_____ has given his name as being desirous of obtaining employment, and has specified you as his last employers. You will greatly assist the purposes of the Registration if you will kindly fill up and post the return half of this card. You will observe that a register number is used, **SO THAT YOU ARE FULLY PROTECTED** if it be necessary to report unfavourably.

Secretary.

COUNTY BOROUGH OF SALFORD.

REGISTRATION OF UNEMPLOYED.

Register No _____

This man was in _____ *employ as stated,*
and performed his duties(1) _____

He was discharged on account of (2) _____

(1) Here please state whether to your satisfaction or otherwise.
(2) Here please state reason for discharge.

Signed _____

During the six months ended 19th June 1893, 1,456 applicants were registered. The trades of these applicants and the numbers placed in situations will be seen by reference to the tables on page 118.

It has been the custom of the Corporation to publish every Thursday a weekly flyleaf giving particulars of the bureau and

of employment required. The following copy of the flyleaf, dated June 15th, will serve as a specimen:—

TO THE EMPLOYERS OF LABOUR IN THE COUNTY BOROUGH OF SALFORD.

The Corporation of Salford, with the view of assisting unemployed workmen resident in the Borough to obtain work as speedily as possible, have decided to continue the Registration Office as a Labour Exchange for the Borough.

The Committee have every hope that the system which they have adopted will presently enable them, at any time, to recommend workmen of good character, and representing almost every trade which is carried on in the neighbourhood; and they are convinced that, having once secured the confidence of the employers and workmen alike, the Exchange will prove an invaluable means of speedy communication between employers and unemployed.

The Committee therefore earnestly request you to support this important experiment, so far as lies in your power, by applying to the Labour Exchange whenever you are in need of any labour, whether skilled or unskilled.

The Committee, on their part, will endeavour to assure themselves of the fitness, both as to character and ability, of those whom they recommend for any situation, and they will strictly confine their operations to residents in the Borough.

The Labour Exchange is temporarily situated at

THE TEMPERANCE HALL, FORD STREET,

(Near the Town Hall,)

SALFORD.

Hours, 10.0 a.m. to 4.0 p.m., Saturdays excepted.

Applications *by Employers* for Workmen, *if by letter*, should be addressed to the Secretary, Unemployed Committee, Town Hall, Salford, or *personally* at Ford Street.

(Signed)

..... } **REGISTRATION
SUB-COMMITTEE.**

PARTICULARS OF EMPLOYMENT REQUIRED,

Thursday Night, June 15th, 1893.

Bass maker -	-	1	Back tenters -	-	3
Boiler maker	-	1	Bleacher's packer	-	1
Bass dresser	-	1	Barman -	-	1
Bottler -	-	1	Brass finishers	-	8
Bleacher -	-	1	Blacksmiths -	-	2

Bath attendants	-	2	Iron dresser	-	1
Brass moulder	-	1	Iron polisher	-	1
Bakers	-	5	Joiners	-	6
Bicycle wheel maker	1		Labourers	-	400
Boot makers	-	2	Lurymen	-	5
Beaterman	-	1	Lidder	-	1
Bleacher's finisher	-	1	Lap carrier	-	1
Belt weavers	-	2	Lithographic printers	3	
Boot and shoe packer	1		Leather dresser	-	1
Carters	-	67	Machine strap maker	1	
Coachman	-	1	Maker-up	-	1
Coalheavers	-	2	Mantle cutter	-	1
Cellarmen	-	2	Mantle maker	-	1
Clerks	-	17	Musical instrument		
Carpenters	-	2	finisher	-	1
Carpet weaver	-	1	Marble mason	-	1
Clammer	-	1	Navvies	-	32
Core makers	-	3	Overlooker	-	1
Chemical manufacturer	1		Painters	-	14
Carriage fitter	-	1	Planers	-	3
Cotton twister	1		Pail carrier	-	1
Cloth raiser	-	1	Plumber	-	1
Crane driver	-	1	Packers	-	10
Cloth finisher	-	1	Pipe polisher	-	1
Calender man	-	1	Puddlers	-	14
Concretor	-	1	Printer's feeder	-	1
Cotton piecer	-	1	Plasterer	-	1
Cart sheet maker	-	1	Pipe fitter	-	1
Contractor	-	1	Paper maker's finisher	1	
Cabinet maker	-	1	Poulterer	-	1
Ccooper	-	1	Packing case maker	-	1
Drillers	-	8	Reelers	-	3
Dyewasher	-	1	Slotters and shapers	-	3
Dyers	-	18	Sawyers	-	3
Dryer	-	1	Spinners	-	3
Engine drivers	-	10	Screwers	-	2
Engineers	-	5	Strikers	-	22
Electric light man	-	1	Slater	-	1
Engineer's improver	-	1	Stiffeners	-	2
Electrician	-	1	Stripper and grinder	1	
Engineer's clock maker	1		Spring mattress maker	1	
Fitters	-	14	Strap stitcher	-	1
Firemen	-	13	Stamp maker	-	1
Fitter's labourers	-	2	Sinker	-	1
Furniture packer	-	1	Servant	-	1
Glass bottle packer	-	1	Tailor	-	1
Goods porter	-	1	Timber jobber	-	1
Greyman	-	1	Timekeepers	-	3
Goods Stamper	-	1	Tin plate workers	-	3
Grocer	-	1	Tailor's machinist	-	1
Grooms	-	2	Umbrella maker	-	1
Glass packers	-	2	Warehousemen	-	13
Gold beater	-	1	Watchmen	-	3
Horse keepers	-	5	Waterproof spreaders	3	
Iron turners	-	23	Wire drawer	-	1
Iron moulders	-	13	Weavers	-	2

Waiter	-	-	1	Wire cleaner	-	1
Washerman	-	-	1	Waggon builder	-	1
Warpers	-	-	2	Warp sizars	-	2

Total applications during 29 weeks	-	-	1,728
Employment afforded—			
By private employers to	-	-	333
„ Salford Corporation to	-	-	190
„ registrations cancelled	-	-	205
„ temporary employment	-	-	78
„ removals cancelled	-	-	56
			<hr/>
Total dealt with	-	-	862
			<hr/>

Leaving 866 not yet dealt with.

Though it was originally started as a temporary register to ascertain the number of persons unemployed in the borough, the operations of the Salford Labour Bureau were extended for a year by a vote of the Council on 12th April 1893. It may therefore, perhaps, be classed as a permanent bureau.

Chelsea.—One of the most important labour bureaux under the control of a London Vestry is that at Chelsea, which was founded in October 1891. The bureau is managed by a committee of the vestry, employing a superintendent and a lad. It is open daily from 9 to 12 for men and from 1 to 5 for women, except on Saturdays. Applicants must be resident in the parish, and must fill in a form indicating name, address, character of employment required, where last employed and how long out of employment. Registration is free, and applicants must apply for renewal every seventh day if still unemployed. The superintendent exercises his discretion to a certain extent in selecting persons from among those registered to send to employers. He has a general instruction from the Committee to work in harmony with trade organisations, but the vestry have not officially laid down the principle that men are not to be sent to take the place of strikers.

The bureau has no permanent connexion with any scheme of relief, though last winter, by arrangement with the surveyor to the vestry, tickets were issued to the men on the register, giving preference for employment in clearing the roads of snow. The superintendent presents a monthly report to the vestry on the work of the bureau.

Several other vestries have copied the forms in use at the Chelsea Bureau, with more or less modification, when starting permanent or temporary registries in their districts. It may, therefore, be of interest to reprint some of the principal forms here. It should be stated that in practice Form No. 3 is seldom returned to the office.

FORM 1.

No.

CHELSEA LABOUR BUREAU.

TOWN HALL, KING'S ROAD, CHELSEA, S.W. Date _____ 189 .

Full Name.	
Full Address	
Description of Employment required.	
Where last employed.	
How long unemployed.	
Any remarks applicant may desire to make.	<hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>

FORM 2.

No.

CHELSEA LABOUR BUREAU.

TOWN HALL, KING'S ROAD, CHELSEA, S.W.

Date _____ 189 .

SIR,

I am pleased to inform you that I have obtained employment at _____

and desire to have my name erased from the list of applicants for employment.

(Signed) _____

NOTE.—This form must, when filled up, be delivered at the Bureau as soon as possible after obtaining employment.

.....
Superintendent.KEEP THIS CLEAN.

FORM 3.

LABOUR BUREAU,
TOWN HALL, CHELSEA, S.W.

..... 189 .

On the day of I sent you
in compliance with your wish. Will you kindly fill up the form at the
foot, and return it to me at your earliest convenience?

I am,, your obedient Servant,
..... *Superintendent.*

Mr.

REPLY.

I am* suited [and the person you sent is still in my service.]

Signature

Date

* Insert "not" if such be the case, and strike out the words in brackets.

During the year, January 1st 1892, to December 31st, 1892, 3,402 names were registered, and employment (either temporary or permanent) was found for 1,649, of whom 668 were domestic servants, 290 charwomen, 150 boys, 121 labourers, and the remaining 420 men and women belonging to various trades and industries. The expenditure of the bureau for the first year, October 1891 to October 1892, was 180*l.* 12*s.* 7*d.*, the bureau being accommodated rent free in the vestry offices.

Most of the remainder of the existing labour bureaux conducted by London vestries and local boards had their origin in the temporary registries for the unemployed started last winter in various districts under circumstances described in a later section of this report. Some of these registries have been discontinued since the spring (as at Lambeth and elsewhere), others though still nominally open are for the time practically closed (as at Westminster, the Strand, &c.); a few have been worked continuously as labour bureaux, and may be considered as permanent institutions.

Of the latter the most important are the bureaux at St. Pancras, Battersea, and Camberwell.

The **St. Pancras** Bureau was started in January last, and from its establishment up to August 31st registered 3,297 applicants, for 446 of whom it found employment. At the beginning 20 branch offices were opened, but the amount of use made of these offices decreased after a time, and the whole work of the bureau is now centralised in one office.

The following is the form of application :—

No. of Applicant	Date	1893.	
Christian and Surname of Applicant	Names	Ages.	
Age			
Married, Single, Widower, or Widow			
No. of Children dependent on Applicant			
Trade or Calling of Applicant			
How long Out of Work			
Where last Employed			
Total Average Weekly Earnings when in Work			
Of Applicant			
Of Wife			
Of Children			
Place of Residence			
No. of Rooms Occupied			
Period of Residence			
Amount of Rent paid			
If in Receipt of Relief from the Parish			

Any further remarks Applicant may desire to make respecting former employment, references, or other special matters for information of employers.

The forms of letters to employers are substantially the same as those in use at Chelsea.

Applicants are required to renew their applications once a fortnight until they obtain work, and are asked to report the fact as soon as they find work for themselves, but the first report of the bureau states that these rules are not strictly complied with. The particulars filled in on the application forms are not as a rule verified by inquiry. With regard to the question of recommendation, the importance of which is alluded to above, the Superintendent in her report to the vestry states that :—

“ The question of recommendation is a serious one, and has had to be dealt with very gently ; we do not take responsibility in any way, but we have found it desirable, in the interests of the applicants, to invite them to furnish such particulars as will enable employers to make inquiries as to character and suitability. Some working men urge that their character has nothing to do with their quality as workmen and their claim to employment. No doubt, from their point of view, there is some justification for the argument, but I am glad to say that few applicants have persisted in their view when it is pointed out to them how an employer may be equally right in taking the opposite view.”

Care is said to be taken not to interfere with questions of wages to be received, the work of the bureau being considered to consist simply in registering names of workmen and employers. The cost of the bureau for the first three months (when the

branch offices were open) was 98*l.* 5*s.* 11*d.* exclusive of printing, and with no charge for rent. As now worked the cost is stated by the superintendent to be about 2*l.* a week. The trades of those registered and those placed in situations are given on p. 114.

The **Battersea** Bureau is conducted in premises provided by the vestry, by which it is maintained. It was opened in December 1892, and during the succeeding six months the names of 1,948 men and boys, and 367 women were registered, and 447 men and boys and 122 women have been placed in situations, either permanent or temporary. Of these 24 men were employed by the vestry surveyor, and 10 by the Commissioners of Baths and Washhouses. The forms used, the hours during which the bureau is open, and the general lines on which it is conducted, are substantially the same as at Chelsea. The cost for the first six months, including the expense of fitting up the office, is stated to have been 106*l.* 6*s.* 3*d.*

At **Camberwell** a labour bureau was established by the vestry on December 19th, 1892, first for men and since December 30th for men and women. The forms used are nearly identical with those used at Chelsea. The bureau occupies a special building containing two rooms erected by the vestry at the rear of the vestry hall, and is managed by a committee of the vestry. When a workman is supplied to an employer, both parties are informed that not less than trade union rates of wages should be given or accepted. The employers who chiefly use the bureau are shopkeepers and small manufacturers. There is a good demand for domestic servants, but not many applicants for situations. As at Chelsea, St. Pancras, and elsewhere, very few employers return the forms asking whether they are suited or not. The rule is to keep applicants on the register for seven days, after which they must renew their application if necessary.

The Superintendent has visited the chief local employers, and temporary work as sandwich men has been found for many men, who have been supplied with boards (borrowed for the purpose) and paid 2*s.* 6*d.* a day through the superintendent of the bureau.

Other Bureaux and Registries.—The Labour Exchange, opened in February 1893 by the Strand district Board of Works registered 191 names up to May 15th, mostly of unskilled labourers. The only man for whom work was found was employed by the board. The office is now closed, but any persons still wishing to register can do so at the offices of the board.

In Westminster an employment registry has been at work since March 6th, 1893, the Vestry of St. Margaret and St. John having voted 200*l.* for the purpose. The number of persons registered up to June 15th was 936, and employment found for 25. The table on p. 115 shows that most of the applicants are unskilled labourers, porters, carmen, boys, and charwomen.

A labour bureau was established by the Vestry of St. Martin-in-the-Fields on November 17th, 1892, but with the exception of a few men employed temporarily by the surveyor,

none of the 169 applicants have been placed in situations. The Chelsea forms are used, but there is no inquiry or classification.

The temporary registries, which were open for a few months during the winter, need no description, beyond the analysis of applicants given on p. 210, and the work of certain voluntary bureaux established in Liverpool and Leeds during the past spring is alluded to on pp. 184 and 225. None of them succeeded to any appreciable extent in obtaining private employment for those who registered their names, and such interest as they possess is mainly in connection with the supply of labour for public relief works. The labour bureau established by the Salvation Army is best described as part of its general system of social work (see p. 161).

The work of registries for domestic servants and of agencies dealing with particular classes of persons, *e.g.*, reserve soldiers, discharged prisoners, &c., &c., is dealt with in special chapters.

The expenditure of money out of the local rates for the purpose of maintaining labour bureaux has not passed without challenge even in the case of London vestries, the powers of which are in some ways less clearly limited than those of ordinary municipalities. Representations have been made by several of those concerned with the management of voluntary bureaux that legislation is desirable which should place these powers beyond question in the case of all municipal authorities.

(c.) CONCLUDING SUMMARY.

To summarise the results of the inquiry into the work of existing labour bureaux and to define the scope of their possible utility is no easy task. It is to be remembered that such bureaux as exist are mainly to be regarded as sporadic experiments, contending often, like so many new institutions, with great obstacles, arising from financial embarrassment, difficulties of management, and absence of general interest and support. To treat the degree of success which they have achieved as the measure of the possibilities of this kind of industrial institution would be in the highest degree unfair. Nevertheless, the variety of experiment has been sufficient to enable a few provisional conclusions to be arrived at, which, though not to be regarded as absolute or final, may at least be of some use in pointing out the directions in which success is most and least likely to be attained.

With these reservations, it may be said in the first place that one essential condition of success appears to be selection of applicants. Without such selection employers will not as a rule use the bureaux. In a large centre the selection can only be made by adequate inquiry, and this would seem necessarily to involve something of the nature of the "character note" to which some workmen object. Without going into the question of the reasonableness of their objection, it may be said that without this condition a labour bureau is unlikely to be of

much material service to the trade to which the objectors belong. While inquiry appears necessary in large centres, it may be safely replaced by the far more effective guarantee of personal knowledge in the case of registries in small country districts like Egham, where the great bulk of applicants, both workpeople and employers, are known to the superintendent. This would seem to support the view held by some persons of experience, that labour bureaux are more likely to succeed in small and medium sized towns than in the largest centres.

Secondly, and for much the same reasons, it appears not to be desirable to mix up the functions of a labour exchange with those of a relief-agency. The supply of efficient labour to employers and the rescue of the "submerged" are essentially different problems.

Thirdly, it would appear desirable, where practicable, for a bureau to steer quite clear of trade disputes, by declining either to supply men to a workshop where there is a strike, or to register the names of workmen on strike. The superintendent cannot, of course, always inform himself as to all the strikes which may occur, but it might, perhaps, be possible for the trade society or employer, as the case might be, to send a notification of the fact of a dispute to the local labour bureau. In any case the interference of a labour bureau in a trade dispute would tend to impair its usefulness, and to make it unpopular. Cases illustrating this danger have already occurred in some districts.

Fourthly, whatever scheme be adopted the success of a labour bureau will depend mainly on the energy, tact, and judgment of the manager, and the degree to which he can gain the confidence of employers and workmen.

With the best of conditions, labour bureaux can hardly be expected ever to become the sole or principal means of bringing together employers and unemployed. The bulk of the work of hiring labour and seeking employment will in most trades continue to be done directly between workmen and employers, as is the case even in countries where, as in France, the system of bureaux has been carried much further than in the United Kingdom. Nor as regards the organised trades can labour bureaux as a rule compare in utility, so far as workmen are concerned, with the work of a well-managed trade society, such as some of those described in a previous section. The chief field of usefulness of labour bureaux is likely, therefore, to be found for some time to come in the less highly organised trades. Limited, however, as the functions of labour bureaux may be, there is no reason to suppose that they have anything like reached their limits, and in the present experimental stage of the problem it is desirable to encourage and watch every carefully devised fresh experiment in this direction.

Full particulars of the number and occupations of the applicants at the bureaux and the character of the employment obtained for them will be found in the annexed tables.

TABLE showing the NUMBER and OCCUPATIONS of
was found through the under-mentioned
METROPOLITAN.

Trade.	St. Pancras.			Chelsea.			Battersea.			
	No. of Applicants from 23rd Jan. 1893 to 31st Aug. 1893.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.		No. of Applicants from 1st Jan. 1892 to 31st Dec. 1892.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.		No. of Applicants from 1st Jan. 1893 to 30th June 1893.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.		
		Perma- nent.	Tempo- rary.		Perma- nent.	Tempo- rary.		Perma- nent.	Tempo- rary.*	
MEN.										
Gardeners - - - -	17	2	1	12	3	1	17	—	—	
Building trades :—										
Bricklayers - - - -	15	—	1	16	11	2	31	—	16	
Masons - - - - -	8	—	—	4	—	1	16	—	4	
Carpenters and joiners - -	50	3	7	31	9	12	102	—	39	
Plumbers - - - - -	21	—	1	17	—	1	14	—	7	
Plasterers - - - - -	1	—	—	11	9	2	9	—	5	
Painters - - - - -	120	—	—	96	15	22	169	—	60	
Builders' labourers - - -	169	5	9	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Engineering and metal trades :—										
Engineers, fitters, &c. - -	16	2	—	32	4	—	4	—	—	
Boiler-makers and ironfounders	1	—	—	3	—	—	1	—	—	
Blacksmiths, &c. - - - -	15	1	—	4	1	—	2	1	—	
Others - - - - -	63	—	1	—	—	—	35	6	—	
Woodwork and furniture trades :—										
Coopers - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Cabinet makers, upholsterers, &c.	58	3	1	14	3	4	8	—	1	
Carriage builders - - - -	13	1	—	12	12	—	—	—	—	
Others - - - - -	47	3	3	—	—	—	9	—	—	
Printing and bookbinding trades :—										
Compositors - - - - -	3	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	
Machine-minders, &c. - - -	10	3	3	—	—	—	2	—	—	
Bookbinders - - - - -	11	1	—	3	—	—	4	—	—	
Others - - - - -	21	1	2	4	—	—	—	—	—	
Fine instruments, jewellery, &c. -	37	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	
Leather and fur trades - - -	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Chemical and allied trades - - -	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	
Textile trades - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Carried forward - - - -	701	25	29	264	67	45	424	7	132	

* *Battersea*.—All situations obtained have been tabulated as temporary, except those in which applicants have informed the vestry that the situations were permanent.

APPLICANTS and of those for whom EMPLOYMENT
LABOUR BUREAUX during the PERIODS stated.

METROPOLITAN.

Camberwell.			Westminster.			St. Giles' and St. George's Bloomsbury.			Trade.
No. of Ap- pli- cants from 19th Dec. 1892 to 25th Mar. 1893.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.*		No. of Ap- pli- cants from 6th Mar. 1893 to 15th June 1893.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.		No. of Ap- pli- cants from 1st Jan. 1893 to 25th Mar. 1893.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.†		
	Per- ma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.		Per- ma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.		Per- ma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.	
									MEN.
21	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Gardeners.
22	21	—	5	—	—	1	—	—	Building trades:— Bricklayers.
7		—	4	—	—	—	—	—	Masons.
32		—	10	1	—	—	—	—	Carpenters and joiners.
17		—	3	—	—	—	—	—	Plumbers.
17		—	2	—	—	—	—	—	Plasterers.
259		—	18	2	—	6	—	—	Painters.
340	—	—	33	1	—	1	—	—	Builders' labourers.
18	—	—	9	—	—	—	—	—	Engineering and metal trades:— Engineers, fitters, &c.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Boiler-makers and ironfounders.
12	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	Blacksmiths, &c.
13	—	—	9	—	—	3	—	—	Others.
5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Woodwork and furniture trades:— Coopers.
9	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	Cabinet makers, upholsterers, &c.
2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Carriage builders.
14	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	Others.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Printing and bookbinding trades:— Compositors.
8	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	Machine-minders, &c.
4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Bookbinders.
3	—	—	2	—	—	1	—	—	Others.
3	—	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	Fine instruments, jewellery, &c.
15	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	Leather and fur trades.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Chemical and allied trades.
2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Textile trades.
833	21	—	111	4	—	13	—	—	Carried forward.

* *Camberwell*.—These figures are exclusive of men employed by the vestry on relief works.

† *St. Giles*.—Number of applicants for whom situations were found cannot be stated, but a number were found employment by the St. Giles' Board of Works.

**TABLE showing the NUMBER and OCCUPATIONS of
was found through the under-mentioned**

METROPOLITAN—*cont.*

Trade.	St. Pancras.			Chelsea.			Battersea.			
	No. of Applicants from 23rd Jan. 1893 to 31st Aug. 1893.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.		No. of Applicants from 1st Jan. 1892 to 31st Dec. 1892.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.		No. of Applicants from 1st Jan. 1893 to 30th June 1893.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.		
		Perma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.		Perma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.		Perma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.*	
MEN— <i>cont.</i>										
Brought forward - - -	701	25	29	264	67	45	424	7	132	
Clothing trades - - -	9	—	2	9	2	—	7	1	—	
Food, drink, and tobacco (preparation of). - - -	22	—	2	13	2	—	—	—	—	
Engine-drivers, stokers, &c. - - -	33	—	1	15	2	—	46	—	13	
Railway employés - - -	20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Miscellaneous (skilled) - - -	33	2	—	29	20	5	—	—	—	
Carmen and transport (other than railways). - - -	225	12	8	99	7	—	178	—	32	
Stablemen, horsemen, &c. - - -	61	—	—	12	4	1	47	—	26	
Retail tradesmen - - -	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Shop assistants - - -	37	3	—	25	13	—	29	11	—	
General labourers - - -	397	18	75	223	26	95	630	—	102	
Clerks and warehousemen - - -	66	2	8	64	16	19	94	—	10	
Porters and messengers - - -	365	34	2	311	37	10	114	—	16	
Menservants, watchmen, &c. - - -	54	—	4	112	38	5	71	—	10	
Street sellers and dealers - - -	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Waiters - - -	5	1	—	16	1	2	19	—	—	
Others - - -	127	19	—	3	—	1	178	—	39	
Total men - - -	2,158	116	131	1,195	235	183	1,837	19	390	
BOYS - - -	519	118	7	589	119	31	111	—	48	
WOMEN AND GIRLS.										
Dressmakers, seamstresses, &c. - - -	56	3	7	98	72	9	24	—	3	
Charwomen, washerwomen, &c. - - -	242	4	3	718	211	79	248	—	66	
Domestic servants - - -	180	39	—	741	668	—	53	41	—	
Shop assistants - - -	26	—	—	43	19	—	32	8	—	
Miscellaneous - - -	116	18	—	18	5	18	10	—	4	
Total women and girls - - -	620	64	10	1,618	975	106	367	49	73	
Grand total (Metropolitan) - - -	3,297	298	148	3,402	1,329	320	2,315	68	501	

* See note on p. 114.

APPLICANTS and of those for whom EMPLOYMENT
LABOUR BUREAUX during the PERIODS stated—*cont.*

METROPOLITAN.—*cont.*

Camberwell.			Westminster.			St. Giles' and St. George's Bloomsbury.			Trade.
No. of Ap- pli- cants from 19th Dec. 1892 to 25th Mar. 1893.	No. of Ap- plicants placed in Situations.*		No. of Ap- pli- cants from 6th Mar. 1893 to 15th June 1893.	No. of Ap- plicants placed in Situations.		No. of Ap- pli- cants from 1st Jan. 1893 to 25th Mar. 1893.	No. of Ap- plicants placed in Situations.*		
	Per- ma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.		Per- ma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.		Per- ma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.	
MEN—cont.									
823	21	—	111	4	—	13	—	—	Brought forward.
16	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	Clothing trades.
28	—	—	8	—	—	1	—	—	Food, drink, and tobacco (prepara- tion of).
17	—	—	9	—	—	—	—	—	Engine-drivers, stokers, &c.
4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Railway employes.
26	—	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	Miscellaneous (skilled).
173	—	—	60	—	—	4	—	—	Carmen and transport (other than railways).
23	—	—	19	—	—	—	—	—	Stablemen, horsemen, &c.
1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Retail tradesmen.
9	—	—	9	1	—	1	—	—	Shop assistants.
772	20	246	153	3	—	38	—	—	General labourers.
53	—	—	18	—	—	1	—	—	Clerks and warehousemen.
84	3	—	106	—	—	10	—	—	Porters and messengers.
23	—	—	33	1	—	2	—	—	Menservants, watchmen, &c..
9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Street sellers and dealers.
5	—	—	6	—	—	1	—	—	Waiters.
12	—	—	31	—	—	6	—	—	Others.
2,078	44	246	566	9	—	78	—	—	Total men.
16	4	—	94	4	—	—	—	—	Boys.
WOMEN AND GIRLS.									
10	—	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	Dressmakers, seamstresses, &c.
91	—	—	146	6	—	2	—	—	Charwomen, washerwomen, &c.
29	9	—	54	6	—	—	—	—	Domestic servants.
1	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	Shop assistants.
5	—	—	60	—	—	—	—	—	Miscellaneous.
136	9	—	276	12	—	2	—	—	Total women and girls.
2,230	57	246	936	25	—	80	—	—	Grand total (Metropolitan).

* See note on p. 115.

TABLE showing the NUMBER and OCCUPATIONS of APPLICANTS and of those for whom EMPLOYMENT was found through the under-mentioned LABOUR BUREAUX during the PERIODS stated.

PROVINCIAL

Trade.	Bgham.		Ipswich.			Wolverhampton.			Salford.		
	No. of Applicants from 1st Oct. 1891 to 31st Dec. 1892.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.	No. of Applicants from 31st Oct. 1891 to 31st Oct. 1892.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.		No. of Applicants from 20th Dec. 1892 to 20th Jan. 1893.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.		No. of Applicants from 19th Dec. 1892 to 19th June 1893.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.	
				Perma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.		Perma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.		Perma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.
MEN.											
Agricultural :—											
Farm labourers . . .	4	3	10	4	—	4	—	—	—	—	—
Gardeners . . .	42	34	24	6	16	3	—	—	—	—	—
Building trades :—											
Brickmakers . . .	—	—	1	1	—	6	—	—	1	—	—
Bricklayers . . .	35	24	1	—	—	13	—	—	6	6	—
Masons . . .	2	1	—	—	—	2	—	—	4	3	—
Carpenters and joiners . . .	62	49	7	1	6	3	—	—	30	21	3
Plumbers, &c. . .	9	5	—	—	—	1	—	—	2	—	—
Plasterers . . .	—	—	—	—	—	10	—	—	2	—	—
Painters . . .	45	30	5	—	4	16	1	—	48	20	—
Labourers . . .	—	—	—	—	—	30	—	—	—	—	—
Mining . . .	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
Engineering and metal trades :—											
Engineers, fitters, &c. . .	—	—	12	5	1	44	3	—	73	15	—
Boiler makers, iron ship-builders.	—	—	2	—	—	10	—	—	2	—	—
Iron manufacture and iron-founders.	—	—	1	1	—	76	—	—	51	13	—
Blacksmiths, &c. . .	—	—	5	1	—	45	—	—	32	6	—
Others . . .	—	—	5	3	—	119	—	—	4	—	—
Woodwork and furniture trades :—											
Coopers . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—
Cabinet makers, upholsterers, &c.	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	3	1	—
Carriage builders . . .	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	4	2	—
Ship, boat, and barge builders (wood). . .	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	—
Others . . .	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	7	2	—
Printing and bookbinding trades.	—	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	7	3	—
Chemical and allied trades . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—
Textile trades . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	69	10	2
Carried forward . . .	190	146	76	23	27	439	4	—	347	102	5

TABLE showing the NUMBER and OCCUPATIONS of APPLICANTS and of those for whom EMPLOYMENT was found through the under-mentioned LABOUR BUREAUX during the PERIODS stated—*cont.*

PROVINCIAL—*cont.*

Trade.	Egham.		Ipswich.			Wolverhampton.			Salford.		
	No. of Applicants from 1st Oct. 1891 to 31st Dec. 1892.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.	No. of Applicants from 31st Oct. 1891 to 31st Oct. 1892.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.		No. of Applicants from 29th Dec. 1892 to 20th Jan. 1893.	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.		No. of Applicants from 19th Dec. 1892 to 19th June 1893.*	No. of Applicants placed in Situations.	
				Perma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.		Perma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.		Perma- nent.	Tem- po- rary.
MEN—<i>cont.</i>											
Brought forward	199	146	76	23	27	439	4	—	347	102	5
Clothing trades	—	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	10	—	—
Food, drink, and tobacco (pre- paration of).	—	—	11	4	—	3	—	—	4	—	—
Engine drivers, stokers, &c.	—	—	5	—	—	3	—	—	39	7	—
Railway employés	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Miscellaneous (skilled)	—	—	—	—	—	4	—	—	14	5	—
Carmen and transport (other than railways).	—	—	23	20	—	16	2	—	98	23	1
Stablemen, horsemen, &c.	21	18	47	16	7	—	—	—	10	1	—
Retail tradesmen	—	—	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Shop assistants	—	—	4	1	—	1	—	—	3	—	—
General labourers	116	93	92	18	55	275	4	10	877	67	70
Clerks and warehousemen	—	—	16	2	2	7	—	—	46	10	2
Seamen, fishermen, watermen, &c.	—	—	—	—	—	9	—	—	—	—	—
Porters and messengers	—	—	76	21	30	—	—	—	1	—	—
Menservants, watchmen and attendants.	3	3	26	4	1	1	—	—	1	—	—
Costermongers, street sellers, and dealers.	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Waiters	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	3	1	—
Others unspecified	—	—	9	—	3	4	—	—	2	1	—
Total men	339	260	394	109	125	763	10	10	1,455	217	78
BOYS	32	21	64	41	16	—	—	—	—	—	—
WOMEN and GIRLS.											
Dressmakers, seamstresses, &c.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—
Charwomen, washerwomen, &c.	11	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total women and girls	11	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—
Grand total (Provincial)	332	289	458	150	141	763	10	10	1,456	217	78

* The number of applicants here stated is the number registered from December 19th, the date on which the management was taken by the Corporation. Before that date, 273 persons had been registered in three wards of the borough.

(iv.) REGISTRIES FOR WOMEN AND GIRLS.

The problem of finding work for unemployed women and girls does not often present itself in the same form as in the case of men. So long as the husband is in work the necessity for finding employment on the part of the wife is rarely very urgent; a dislocation in trade which throws married women out of work may even result in increased steadiness on the part of the husband, unless as was the case in the Lancashire Cotton Famine, husband and wife are engaged in the same industry and thrown out of work at the same time.

When the problem is confined to the finding of employment for single women or women with no one dependent on them, the principal difficulty is not that of finding employment of any kind, but of finding work of a suitable kind. The majority of such applicants are young women and girls who run many risks in accepting situations without any knowledge of the character of their employers, and incur equal risk in living in lodgings while looking for a place. The demand for domestic servants of all grades is so great that any girl with but a slight practice in housework can obtain some kind of place. In factory districts, however, it is found that even when in great distress, factory girls do not enter service, partly in consequence of a very general dislike of the restrictions entailed, and partly because they have had no training, which might help to make the relations of mistress and servant tolerable to either.

Protection and training (the latter almost entirely for domestic service), are, therefore, found to be the two principal aids offered by all societies dealing with working girls out of employment.

Adopting the classification made by working girls themselves, it is customary to deal separately with those "in business" (shop assistants, dressmakers, milliners, &c.), those engaged in mills, factories and warehouses, and those in domestic service.

(a.) WOMEN AND GIRLS IN BUSINESS.

The registry system is not resorted to in any great degree for business employment. Advertisements in newspapers, notices in windows and private recommendation from commercial travellers and others are the usual means of obtaining engagement. A registry started by the Girls' Friendly Society was not found to be successful, the explanation being that those members who were competent dressmakers or shop assistants found no difficulty in obtaining work, and those who placed themselves on the registry were weak or inefficient, and gave no encouragement to employers to use the registry again. The

Young Women's Christian Associations which include in their various branches throughout England a greater number of girls in business than any other society, supply centres to which employers can and do apply for workers to fill up vacancies in their shops and workrooms. An employment agency is conducted by the Young Women's Christian Association in Regent Street, which is considered by its director to be successful. The annual report, however, of the employment agency in London contains no statistical records of its work. The homes provided by the Association are largely used by girls employed in shops and workrooms, and afford a safe lodging for girls looking for work. Domestic servants also avail themselves of the advantages offered them when out of work by the Association, but girls in business, clerks, and elementary teachers predominate. In London the various homes provide altogether accommodation for 260 persons. The "Homes for Working Girls in London" supply similar advantages in nine London districts. There are also several clubs, such as the Soho Club, which, without providing a registry, nevertheless enable girls to find employment, news of vacancies being given by one girl to another in ordinary conversation.

(b.) WOMEN AND GIRLS IN MILLS, FACTORIES AND WAREHOUSES.

The central head of the mills, factories, and warehouses department of the Girls' Friendly Society, which has over 17,000 members in this branch, states that in no case are registry offices used to obtain factory work in the 19 centres in different parts of England from which she has received information as to the methods adopted for finding employment. In two cases only was it considered that there was any necessity for a registration system. Both these centres were in East London, and the need expressed was for some system by which girls could be warned against the worst houses. From the replies received it appears that factory workers usually introduce one another, that they answer advertisements, and very frequently find work through notices posted up outside the factories. The practice varies in different districts. Thus from Lancashire it is reported that the girls never advertise for places in a mill; their parents, if working in a mill, apply for them to be taken on as half-timers, and they often spend all their working lives in the same mill. Registry offices are seldom or never used. When a new mill is built in a new country district, advertisements are put in the newspapers by the employers for families to come and settle there, but the girls themselves as a rule do not advertise.

It is in factory industries that the problem of providing employment for large numbers of women and girls, owing to trade disturbance most frequently presents itself; and nowhere

is it so pressing as in districts, such as the Lancashire cotton districts, where fathers, mothers and children are all engaged in the same trade. The experience, however, of administrators of relief during the cotton famine shows that it is possible to assist women and girls at periods of exceptional distress in such a manner as to convert an evil into a good. This, however, belongs rather to the question of relief works than to that of registries.

(c.) DOMESTIC SERVANTS.

It is amongst this section of workwomen alone that the registry system prevails to any considerable extent. It is in relation to this class of labour alone, a class nearly equal in numbers to all other classes of female wage earners added together, that the remarkable feature presents itself of the demand for labour on the part of employers being greater than the supply. An account is here given of the two largest societies which offer to domestic servants that protection and assistance which the special circumstances attaching to domestic service render so necessary. A brief reference to private registries is also added.

The Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servants.

In 1873, Mrs. Nassau Senior was commissioned by the Local Government Board to inquire into the effect on girls of the system of education at pauper schools. The observations and suggestions resulting from the whole inquiry were classified by Mrs. Senior in her report according as they referred to the life of the children in school or in after-life. Under the latter head were considered—(1) guardianship; (2) the choice of situations; (3) supervision; (4) protection when out of place.

“With regard to the choice of situations to which girls are sent, the general practice is, that any situation which offers for a girl considered ready for service, is accepted, if in the judgment of the relieving officer it is not ineligible. In a few of the schools it is the matron or the workmistress, not the relieving officer, to whom the duty of deciding on this point is committed. There are special reasons for care in the choice of the situation for the first start of a workhouse girl in service. Her disadvantages, to begin with, are greater than those of girls of the humblest sort brought up at home; and the dangers which follow failure are in her case, incalculably increased, by having rarely any home but the workhouse to retreat upon. If a girl is placed out in unfavourable conditions, it can hardly be expected that she will keep her place, and continue to be self-supporting; she will be constantly returning to the school from place after place, or if such returns are not permitted by the rules, will provide herself with a situation often as bad as the one she is leaving, and in which she will not remain; or she will go to relations (often the most undesirable friends she can have), or return to the workhouse. . . . As I have said, it is at present the rule that the relieving officer shall visit, and report to the guardians,

on the places of service to which the girls are sent; so that practically the decision rests with him. It is supposed that the relieving officer will, from his intimate knowledge of the districts in which his other work lies, be able better than anyone else to ascertain whether the people applying for a servant are respectable and solvent persons who bear a good character in the neighbourhood. . . . But a place may be an altogether unfit one for a girl, although the relieving officer may have been rightly satisfied on the score of outward respectability. . . .

If there were any difficulty in finding situations for these children, there might be something to be said for taking any places that were offered, without so rigid an inquiry as to their merits. But I am told by every matron without exception, that the applications at the schools for servants are far beyond the supply of girls ready to go out; and that they could place three times as many girls as there are of an age to go to service.

" The importance of a girl's keeping her first place is the greater on account of the difficulty of providing suitable protection for her when she is out of place. She has a right to return to the workhouse, but all agree that this is about the worst thing she can do; and in some cases this is so strongly felt, that she is allowed to return to the school on leaving her place. Matrons and chaplains especially feel the need of better protection for girls who are out of place, and they have expressed to me a wish that a home or safe lodging-house could be provided for them. . . . I have taken counsel with several women whose acquaintance with the class of workhouse girls makes their opinion of value, as to the best means of providing the special supervision, protection and encouragement which appear to me, considering the peculiar training of these girls and the position in which they are placed, to be insufficient under the present system.

"A plan has been suggested to me for calling forth the resources of volunteer benevolence on behalf of workhouse girls, which has already been tested by actual experience, in the case both of workhouse and other friendless girls, and which might meet the needs of the metropolitan workhouse girls, if private efforts can be rendered permanently effective by official aid and sanction.

"The scheme proposes that the charge of the girls when ready for service, shall be transferred from the different unions to which they belong, to a central authority; and that women, properly qualified, shall be officially employed in choosing situations and in visiting girls in place as is now done by chaplain or relieving officer; and that in connection with this official visitation, ladies shall be asked to aid in the supervision of the girls and in encouraging them to do well by little plans formed in their own neighbourhood and worked by themselves. Both the official visitors and the volunteer ladies shall make regular reports of the girls under their charge. These reports shall be received at a central office which shall include under the same roof, a home for the protection of girls temporarily out of place and a registry for young servants under the age of 18."

The result of Mrs. Senior's suggestions was the formation in 1875 of the Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servants. The report of the Association for 1892, speaking of the classes of girls with whom the Association deals, distinguishes between "those girls who come to us from the Poor Law Schools of London, institutions separate from the workhouse, though educating the children of inmates," and "the children of

" the street, those young girls whose parents have allowed them
 " to know too much liberty to make them promising candidates
 " for service."

The Report goes on to say :—

"The former class of girls are called district school girls because the schools in which they are educated usually supply several unions formed into a geographical district. The latter class are called local girls, because they have applied locally, or been sent to our branch offices established all over London. The central office looks after all district school girls who are placed in situations outside our limits (the metropolitan area). The branches visit all girls whether district or local within their geographical radius. The number of girls shows this year an increase of 121 in the case of district school girls but a slight falling off in the case of local girls So far as the district school girls are concerned, their visitation is not a matter of choice. The Local Government Board requires them to be visited, and it is only a question whether the visitation shall be official and perfunctory, or sympathetic and thorough. Up to the time when Mrs. Nassau Senior suggested this means of carrying out the order, the visitation was such as to justify the use of the epithets applied to the first alternative. The association in supplying women visitors, and in securing that the visitation shall not stop with the first place, or with the 16th year, in following the girl from place to place till she is 20, endeavour to earn for their work the epithets used in the second alternative."

The total number of girls coming from the district and separate (poor law) schools and several voluntary institutions who have been under the care of the Association in the course of the year 1892 is 3,392, viz. : 2,716 from district and separate schools in London and the surrounding district, and 676 from various other institutions.

These have been classed in the periodical reports of schools as follows :—

—	Number of Girls.	Notes.
(a) Good - - -	1,743	
(b) Fair - - -	680	
(c) Unsatisfactory - - -	243	(a) Those who throughout the year have been spoken of as satisfactory in conduct and work.
(d) Bad - - -	35	(b) Those against whom no serious faults have been alleged.
In Training Homes - - -	186	(c) Those accused of serious faults—dishonesty, untruth, extreme violence of temper, &c.
Emigrated - - -	10	(d) Those known to have lost character, or who have been in prison for theft, &c.
Married - - -	28	
Dead - - -	5	
Unfit for service - - -	53	
Visits refused - - -	86	
Lost or never traced - - -	131	
With relations - - -	131	
Not yet reported - - -	77	
Total - - -	3,392*	

* The numbers are given as furnished to the Department, but it will be noticed that they add up to 3,408.

The association (which is usually referred to as M. A. B. Y. S.) provides free registry offices at 30 branches in various districts of London.

To supply the great need of girls out of place wishing to enter service—protection and shelter—homes have been established in connexion with 15 branches in which girls are received at rates ranging from 3s. 6d. to 6s. a week, and from 8d. to 1s. a day, for young girls, rising in some cases to 7s. and 8s. a week for girls over 20 years of age.

There are also five certified training homes, to which girls willing to enter service, but with no domestic training can be sent; two of these are specially for backward and feeble-minded girls. Some of the branch homes also provide training.

The following table gives some details of the work done in 1892 by these Homes:—

TABLE GIVING DETAILS OF WORK DONE FOR GIRLS BY BRANCH HOMES DURING 1892.

Branch Homes.	Number of Girls who have passed through the Home during 1892.				Lodgers other than M.A.B.Y.S. Girls.		No. of Beds.
	For Training.	Average length of stay.	For Lodging.	Average length of stay.	Number.	Average length of stay.	
Camberwell .	13	4 weeks	218	4 days	9	3 days	11
Chelsea .	—	—	57	7½ "	9	11½ "	3
Fulham .	—	—	171	3 "	—	—	3
Greenwich .	25	94 days	51	6½ "	—	—	10
Hackney .	4	30½ "	136	6½ "	18	13 "	10
Islington .	10	27 "	146	7½ "	1	8 "	8
Kensington (Nassau Senior).	22	10½ weeks	41	13½ "	1	8 "	11
Lambeth and St. Saviour's.							
Marylebone .	16	20 "	201	7 "	4	9 weeks	12
Norwood .	2	3 weeks and 2 days.	84	6 "	14	15 "	7
Richmond .	35	5½ months	38	11 "	12	13 days	20
Stepney (Eastbourne).	66	57½ days	70	7 "	253	16 "	30
Strand .							
Wandsworth .	18	37 days	169	10 days	—	—	9
Westminster .	9	31 "	175	14 "	27	10 days	8
Total .	272		1,722		362		

N.B.—Each time a girl re-enters a home, she has been counted as a fresh case.

The M. A. B. Y. S. explains its objects in a leaflet given to mistresses :—

“The object of this association is to help orphan and other friendless girls, by finding them suitable places, by keeping a hold upon them between one situation and another, by advising them, caring for them if they are ill, advancing clothing if need be, encouraging them to place their money in savings' banks, by providing a visitor who, with permission of the mistress, may come and see them from time to time in their situations, and by arranging for them, if necessary, when they have holidays.”

Amongst the points strongly urged upon mistresses is the following :—

“That should a mistress wish to part with a girl, she should at once communicate with the secretary at the office, or with the girl's visitor; and that she should in no case turn a girl suddenly out before she has communicated with one of these two ladies, in order to give time to arrange for her safe lodging at night.”

Members of a branch, if moving to another part of the metropolis, are transferred to the branch in the district to which they have moved. The central office is responsible for girls from district schools in their first situation. Afterwards they are transferred to the local branches. The statistics of girls “under care” refer solely to girls under 20 years of age. Adult women use the registries, and in many cases keep up a friendly intercourse with their lady visitors, but are never entered in the reports of work done by the society.

During 1892, 13,844 girls were under the care of the society, of whom 8,563 remained under care at the end of the year, viz., 2,593 girls from school, and 5,970 “local” girls.

A table is given below showing the extent to which the Society acts directly as an employment agency.

No report is made on the number of applications from mistresses for servants, and the excess of demand over supply, or of supply over demand, cannot therefore be estimated. The number of places found for girls given in the table below, does not represent the number who obtain situations, but merely the number who obtain them through the M. A. B. Y. S. registries, many girls entered finding places in some other way. The number of *places* found for girls is recorded, but not the number of *girls* placed, the same girl being therefore counted more than once in several cases. At the Poplar branch, where the largest number of “local girls” are under care, an attempt was made to calculate the number of girls placed. Whereas 1,363 places were secured for girls in 1892 at this branch, the number of individual girls placed was 1,259, of whom 565 were girls who had been on the books during the previous year, and were “under care.” These numbers are liable to a small error, but are approximately correct.

TABLE showing the NUMBER of GIRLS applying for SITUATIONS and of those placed in SITUATIONS as DOMESTIC SERVANTS through the agency of the various branches of the METROPOLITAN ASSOCIATION for BEFRIENDING YOUNG SERVANTS during 1892.

Branches.	Total number of Applications.	Number of places found for Girls.	Number of times Girls have been sent to			No. of times Girls or their relations have repaid wholly or partially for Homes, Lodgings, &c.	Number of Girls supplied with Clothing.	Number of Girls who have wholly or partially repaid for Clothing.
			Lodging-homes.	Training and other Homes.	Hospitals, Convalescent Homes, or Medical help.			
Bethnal Green	185	108	1	1	3	2	28	20
Camberwell	312	252	218	11	52	198	25	25
Chelsea	492	228	2	3	9	60	40	43
City and Shoreditch	78	43	1	3	—	—	7	5
Deptford	218	152	—	5	5	1	37	24
Ealing	55	36	25	1	4	25	11	11
Fulham	448	274	235	8	48	229	55	52
Greenwich	408	220	50	18	36	30	45	30
Hackney	373	216	99	16	18	92	68	58
Hampstead	95	55	5	1	4	4	4	1
Holborn	290	239	20	4	30	12	52	52
Hornsey	—	—	5	2	3	—	—	—
Islington	336	270	158	4	6	38	53	48
Kensington	301	173	52	16	17	37	72	49
Kilburn	181	60	4	4	4	4	8	6
Lambeth	123	109	60	10	15	41	15	15
St. Marylebone	336	215	172	36	69	—	103	81
Norwood	118	93	84	5	9	78	14	11
St. Olave's	348	153	4	16	2	2	29	22
St. Pancras	510	312	88	42	36	14	43	35
Poplar	2,418	1,363	—	6	22	3	164	172
Richmond	160	100	43	8	28	19	30	24
St. Saviour's	237	154	55	16	10	33	98	84
Stepney	239	205	3	11	7	5	55	47
Strand	156	102	50	3	12	47	48	35
Tottenham	190	101	—	—	—	—	13	13
Walworth	200	104	9	12	8	3	49	45
Wandsworth	234	197	187	16	45	104	60	46
Westminster	320	216	232	9	116	211	86	71
Whitechapel	500	317	27	48	48	12	78	39
Woolwich	168	98	—	1	—	—	21	18
Central Office	—	—	126	84	25	18	57	—
Totals	10,009	6,165	2,015	415	685	1,322	1,471	1,182

The Girls' Friendly Society.

In 1875, the year in which the M. A. B. Y. S. was established, the above society was formed with somewhat different though kindred objects.

"Associates" must be of the Church of England (no such restriction being made as to members) and the organisation of the society follows as much as possible that of the Church of England, being diocesan, rural deanery, and parochial. By the system of "commendation" whenever a member changes her place of abode, her associate is bound to commend her on to the branch in her new home; if there should be no branch, then to the care of the nearest associate; or failing this, by a special letter of commendation to the clergyman of the parish, who will thus at once be made aware of her existence, and interested in her welfare.

The society in 1892, included 15,081 working associates, and 138,910 members, the latter being classed as follows:—

Governesses	-	-	-	416
Teachers	-	-	-	2,235
Pupil teachers	-	-	-	2,412
Trained nurses	-	-	-	530
Clerks	-	-	-	439
Students	-	-	-	483
Business, indoor	-	-	-	8,944
" outdoor	-	-	-	5,769
Bars	-	-	-	268
Laundries	-	-	-	1,150
Mills, factories, and warehouses	-	-	-	17,133
Service	-	-	-	58,336
At home	-	-	-	35,687
Miscellaneous	-	-	-	4,348
Occupations not specified	-	-	-	760
Total				<u>138,910</u>

The need for secular help is fully recognised by the society as a whole and in varying degrees by the different branches. The work done by the M. A. B. Y. S. in London, in connexion with district schools, is to some extent performed by the Girls' Friendly Society elsewhere. Children in workhouses and orphanages are enrolled as candidates before leaving the union; places are found for them with mistresses who will take an interest in their welfare, and in some cases they are sent to training homes before going to service, and efforts are made to obviate the necessity of their having to return to the workhouse when out of place. The G. F. S. and the M. A. B. Y. S. co-operate with each other in this branch of the work, girls leaving or going to the metropolis being commended by one society to the care of the other.

During 1892, 479 candidates from workhouses and orphanages were assisted in various ways by the society, *e.g.* by finding situations, providing outfit, training, payment of fares, emigration, or medical assistance.

The registry department of the Girls' Friendly Society, deals almost exclusively with domestic servants.

The following table shows details of the work of this department:—

TABLE showing PARTICULARS of the OPERATIONS of the Department for REGISTRY WORK of the GIRLS' FRIENDLY SOCIETY during 1892.

Dioceses.*	Scale of Fees.	Receipts.	Pay-ments.	Members in Domestic Service.		Members in Professions and Business.			
				Number of Applica-tions.		Number of Servants placed.	Number of Applica-tions.		No. of Mem-bers placed.
				Mis-trees.	Servants.		Em-ploy-ers.	Em-ploy-ées.	
Bangor - -	1s. 6d.	£ s. d. 0 6 0	£ s. d. 0 1 4	14	19	3	—	—	—
Bath and Wells -	1s. to 1s. 6d.	4 16 6	1 4 2	304	159	90	—	—	—
Canterbury - -	6d. to 1s. 6d.	4 0 0	2 15 3	598	360	152	2	4	2
Carlisle - -	1s. to 2s. 6d.	12 7 8	10 0 8	107	127	36	—	—	—
Chester - -	1s. to 2s.	4 18 0	2 6 0	93	44	29	—	—	—
Chichester - -	6d. to 1s. 6d.	15 13 11½	7 10 11½	439	312	167	—	—	—
Ely - - -	1s.	—	—	29	67	76	—	—	—
Exeter - - -	6d. to 2s.	4 7 6	1 7 4	109	116	42	—	—	—
Gloucester and Bristol } - -	6d. to 1s.	36 7 1	9 18 4½	746	485	252	6	9	2
Liverpool - -	1s.	34 12 0	4 2 10½	374	374	203	—	—	—
Lichfield - -	1s. to 4s.	35 12 11	2 12 9½	712	515	252	—	—	—
Lincoln - -	6d. to 2s. 6d.	6 13 6	1 5 1	237	135	79	—	—	—
Manchester - -	1s. to 3s.	30 14 6	8 3 9½	579	402	115	—	—	—
Newcastle - -	3d. to 1s.	0 16 0	0 12 4	53	43	9	—	—	—
Norwich - -	6d. to 2s.	9 4 7	8 8 0½	474	683	229	—	—	—
Oxford - - -	6d. to 1s.	9 9 6	6 11 11	558	517	204	1	3	2
Peterborough -	1s. to 5s.	0 3 0	0 4 0	55	25	58	—	—	—
Ripon - - -	1s. to 2s. 6d.	0 4 6	0 7 6	56	65	34	—	—	—
Rochester - -	1s. to 2s.	14 14 6	4 7 0	429	480	73	—	—	—
Salisbury - -	6d. to 1s.	5 9 10	3 13 6	303	252	82	3	3	2
Southwell - -	6d. to 1s. 6d.	24 0 8	41 8 11	664	398	198	—	—	—
St. Alban's - -	1s.	6 16 6	5 6 1	462	371	156	—	—	—
St. Asaph - -	6d. to 2s.	2 19 4	2 15 0	182	180	81	—	—	—
St. David's - -	3d. to 1s.	2 13 5	1 8 2	230	120	47	—	—	—
Truro - - -	—	—	—	—	—	50	—	—	—
Wakefield - -	1s. to 4s.	1 2 0	3 4 0	773	24	18	—	—	—
Winchester - -	6d. to 3s.	27 10 0	5 2 1	977	950	360	—	—	—
Worcester - -	6d. to 1s.	0 7 0	0 5 7	63	194	117	—	—	2
York - - -	1s. to 2s. 6d.	2 7 6	2 0 7	125	103	52	—	—	—
Totals - -	—	228 6 11½	137 3 4	9,748	7,610	3,284	12	19	9

* Report from London not received.

The assistance given by the society to members seeking work cannot be measured by the statistics of the registry department. Girls are recommended by associates to friends, without being placed on any register. The lodges in different parts of England 56 in number, provide social homes for girls employed away from home, or needing a home while looking for employment; and the system of recommendation makes it possible for a girl to take work in some other town than her own, with much less risk.

Private Registries for Domestic Servants.

Passing from registries managed by committees of charitable societies to registries managed by private persons, we find the latter in use in all parts of the country. One office in London occupies a somewhat exceptional position, supplying as it does, upper class servants to employers in England, Scotland, and Ireland. During 1892 applications were received from 38,595 employers, and from 36,580 servants. The managers of this registry satisfy themselves as to the character of the employers as well as requiring references from servants. The fees charged to servants range from 2s. 6d. to 10s., according to wage obtained, and the employers also pay from 5s. to 10s. These fees, of course, are a sufficient inducement to the proprietors of such registries to serve the interests of both parties.

In the case of the registries which aim at finding situations for the lower grades of servants, the number of mistresses and servants applying at the office is large as compared with number of engagements made. Thus six registry offices of this class in London supplying servants for middle class employers, of which full particulars have been obtained, received applications from 4,094 servants and 4,613 employers and only placed 1,402 servants. Out of 8,707 persons, therefore, only 2,804 were suited, although in each case the number of employers seeking servants was greater than the number of servants seeking employers. At three offices, making no charge to servants either before or after engagement, the total number of servants registered in 1892 was 2,622; of these only 609 were placed. Ladies with special knowledge of the life of the lower grades of servant girls in London, Manchester, Liverpool and other large towns are agreed in declaring that the girls especially need protection from the dangers incurred by applying to registry offices of the character and management of which they know nothing. The business is so unremunerative where moderate fees are charged, that it is apt to fall into the hands of a low class of manager. The girls are recommended to lodgings which often prove to be disreputable; or they are accommodated in homes established by the manager of the office, subject to little supervision. Even though the managers may be quite guiltless of any unfair practices, their clients are exposed to mixing with women of bad character, and they frequently incur heavy debts for lodgings, to be repaid out of small wages.

(v.) VARIOUS AGENCIES FOR FINDING EMPLOYMENT.

(a.)—NEWSPAPERS AS AN EMPLOYMENT AGENCY.

In this, as distinguished from other European countries, the use of the ordinary daily newspaper as a means of bringing together the employer and the employed has become so common that this report would be incomplete without some reference to the press. Accordingly, the advertisements in 15 of the principal general daily newspapers have been classified in order to see what trades make most use of this kind of employment agency. It is not suggested that the results arrived at would be precisely true of any other day than the day selected, because many trades are influenced by seasonal changes. The prosperity or otherwise of particular industries would also affect the demand for certain classes of workers and the relative proportion of advertisements by employers and employed respectively. Again, another selection of newspapers would probably yield somewhat different results, more especially if journals identified to some extent with special trades, localities, or classes of readers, were taken. In short, the table given below must not be understood to indicate more than is expressed in the following heading:—

ANALYSIS of the SITUATIONS advertised in 4 London and 11 Provincial Daily Papers on Wednesday 21st June 1893, as either "Wanted" or "Vacant."

Trade.	Four London Newspapers.		Eleven Provincial Newspapers.		Total.	
	Situ-ations Wanted.	Situ-ations Vacant.	Situ-ations Wanted.	Situ-ations Vacant.	Situ-ations Wanted.	Situ-ations Vacant.
MEN.						
Agricultural:—						
Farm labourers . . .	2	—	—	1	2	1
Gardeners	3	—	14	12	17	12
	5	—	14	13	19	13
Building Trades:—						
Bricklayers and masons .	4	—	—	10	4	11
Carpenters	11	—	1	10	12	10
Gasfitters, plumbers, and painters.	39	—	—	5	39	5
Others	—	2	—	6	—	8
	54	3	1	31	55	34
Engineering 'and' Metal Trades:—						
Engineers, fitters, &c. .	6	6	4	14	10	20
Blacksmiths, &c. . . .	7	1	1	7	8	8
Others	1	—	—	21	1	21
	14	7	5	42	19	49

Trade.	Four London Newspapers.		Eleven Provincial Newspapers.		Total.	
	Situations Wanted.	Situations Vacant.	Situations Wanted.	Situations Vacant.	Situations Wanted.	Situations Vacant.
Men—cont.						
Woodwork and Furniture Trades (excluding Carpenters):—						
Cabinetmakers, upholsterers, carvers, &c.	13	3	—	9	13	12
Carriage builders . . .	7	8	1	27	8	35
Others	1	2	1	4	2	6
	21	13	2	40	23	53
Printing and Bookbinding Trades:—						
Compositors	13	2	3	1	16	3
Machine-minders . .	18	2	—	2	18	4
Bookbinders and others .	3	2	2	4	5	6
	34	6	5	7	39	13
Clothing Trades:—						
Tailors	2	5	5	27	7	32
Boot and shoe makers .	—	3	2	2	2	5
Hatters and others . .	—	2	—	3	—	5
	2	10	7	32	9	42
Miscellaneous Trades:—						
Spinners, bleachers, and dyers	—	—	1	3	1	3
Watchmakers and jewellers	18	—	—	—	18	—
Leather workers . . .	7	6	1	2	8	8
Oil and colourmen . . .	8	1	1	5	9	6
Bakers, butchers, &c. .	118	15	22	33	140	47
Engine drivers, stokers, &c.	8	—	—	2	8	2
Carmen	11	2	6	10	17	12
Grooms and coachmen .	21	8	32	17	53	25
Shop assistants	83	113	38	100	121	213
Clerks and warehousemen .	43	49	27	54	70	103
Porters and messengers .	20	10	—	12	20	22
Men servants, watchmen and attendants.	95	18	7	18	102	36
Milkmen	15	7	—	1	15	8
Walters	—	—	5	10	5	10
Miscellaneous	—	17	—	15	—	32
Total Men	577	285	174	446	751	731
Boys	25	175	6	107	31	282

Trade.	Four London Newspapers.		Eleven Provincial Newspapers.		Total.	
	Situations Wanted.	Situations Vacant.	Situations Wanted.	Situations Vacant.	Situations Wanted.	Situations Vacant.
WOMEN AND GIRLS.						
Textile trades - - -	—	—	—	6	—	6
Dressmakers, seamstresses, &c.	4	43	5	55	9	98
Charwomen and washerwomen	1	4	8	5	9	9
Domestic servants - -	155	431	228	416	383	847
Shop assistants - - -	25	69	36	53	61	123
Miscellaneous - - -	21	11	14	16	35	27
Total Women and Girls	206	558	291	551	497	1,109
Total Men - - -	577	285	174	446	751	731
Boys - - -	25	175	6	107	31	283
Grand Total - - -	808	1,018	471	1,104	1,279	2,122

One of the broad facts brought out by the table is that on the particular date named there were more situations for men advertised as "wanted" in London (577) than the number advertised as vacant (285). The converse was the case both for men and women in the provinces, and for female domestic servants in London.

It will be seen that the agricultural group was practically *nil*, being made up almost entirely of provincial gardeners. In the building trades the men advertised most in London and the employers in the provinces. This was also true, to some extent, of the engineering, woodwork, and furniture trades. In the printing trade it was the men who advertised in London, and in the clothing trade the employers. There are numerous advertisements under the head of bakers, butchers, &c., the number of situations "wanted" preponderating. The advertisements for shop assistants and clerks largely exceed the number of advertisements by these classes. In the case of female domestics there are more than twice as many situations "vacant" as those "wanted." Indeed, the most noticeable feature of the whole table is the large number of advertisements for women (1,109) as compared with the number of advertisements by women (497). On the whole, in one day these 15 newspapers had 3,401 employment advertisements, 2,122 being by employers seeking workpeople and 1,279 by workpeople wanting places.

Of these 1,482 were concerned with men (*viz.*, 751 advertisements for places and 731 for workmen).

The largest single group among the men is that of shop assistants, which (including butchers, bakers, &c.) is responsible for 521 out of the total of 1,482 advertisements. Clerks and warehousemen account for 173, and menservants, attendants,

grooms, and coachmen for 216, leaving only 572 to be distributed among all other trades and industries.

Among the women, domestic service accounts for 1,230, or more than three-quarters of the whole. The only other group of importance is that of female shop assistants, which amounts to 183.

(b.) AGENCIES FOR THE EMPLOYMENT OF SEAMEN.

Seamen are the only class of men for whom the Imperial Government provides what is practically a registry office in which facilities are afforded employers and employed to meet together.* The law further provides that the conditions under which the work is to be done shall be settled in a formal agreement made, as regards foreign-going ships, in the presence of an official. This official is styled a Superintendent of Mercantile Marine, and, so far as his functions in connection with seamen are concerned, he acts under the Board of Trade, directly in most cases and indirectly at a few ports where Local Marine Boards exist. There is one of these officials at each port. In some cases a book giving the names of unemployed seamen is kept, which masters of vessels are allowed to inspect. This book is not, however, much in use, the usual practice being for the master of a ship to post up in the superintendent's office a notice of the number and class of men he wants, or first to select his crew at the shipowner's offices and then to bring them before the superintendent, who reads over and explains in the presence of both parties the terms of the agreement about to be entered into between them. It is unnecessary to describe here the details of such agreements, which in all cases must, comply with the provisions of the law, except as regards rates of wages. The point to be observed is that, in practice, the office of the superintendent is one which both sailors and masters of vessels frequent, well knowing that here they will have a good opportunity of obtaining what they seek.

To facilitate the supply of seamen the Board of Trade has power to grant to certain persons licences to engage or supply seamen or apprentices for merchant ships in the United Kingdom. Such licences, however, may be revoked at any time at the discretion of the Board, and, for the present, boys only are supplied in this way, mainly from training ships. In any case, however, the holders of such licences are merely intermediaries and do not take the place of the superintendents other than in so far as they assist these officers in bringing together the two parties to the agreement, which, in all cases, has to be read and

* The whole expense of staff and accommodation falls upon the Mercantile Marine Fund, which is mainly supported by Light Dues.

signed in the presence of the proper official. This official is also authorised to provide runners to take seamen from one port to another when men are required to complete a crew. On the whole it will be seen that, while it is no part of the duty of the Board of Trade to find employment for seamen, every facility is afforded for them to meet the masters of ships wanting crews, and every precaution is taken to safeguard the seaman from unwittingly making an agreement against his own interest.

There do not appear to be any large agencies for assisting seamen to live while waiting for an engagement, but by assigning his next monthly advance note a seaman can generally obtain credit from one of the lodging-house keepers who cater for this class.

(c.) AGENCIES FOR FINDING WORK FOR DISCHARGED SOLDIERS

Before considering the various agencies at work for finding employment for soldiers discharged or transferred from the Colours to the Reserve Force, it may be well to see how many men have to be dealt with. From the last report* issued by the War Office it appears that in the year 1892 the numbers were as follows:—

Discharged from the Army	-	-	11,658
Transferred from Regular Army to			
1st Class Reserve	-	-	17,890
Total			29,548

These figures show that in one year something like 29,000† men were thrown on the labour market to compete with ordinary workmen for employment. The report does not show the ages of the reservists, but the following particulars are given respecting the discharged soldiers:—

Under 20 years	-	-	-	3,096
20-25 years	-	-	-	4,484
25-30 years	-	-	-	1,536
30-35 years	-	-	-	1,062
35-40 years	-	-	-	670
Over 40 years	-	-	-	770
Not stated	-	-	-	40
Total			-	11,658

The great bulk of the men were, so far as can be judged from age alone, in the prime of life for workmen, no less than 7,580

* General Annual Return of the British Army—C. 7147 of 1893.

† It should be noted, however, that the number of recruits in 1892, a year of depression of trade, was 41,667.

out of 11,658, or over 65 per cent., being under 25 years of age, and more than half of the remaining 4,078 were under 32 years.

Of a total number of soldiers discharged and transferred to the Reserve, viz., 29,548, no less than 20,694 belonged to infantry regiments, of whom probably a large proportion were not mechanics, and would consequently drift into the ranks of unskilled labour. On the other hand cavalrymen and many of the artillerymen would, through their experience with horses, make good grooms or carters; and men of the Royal Engineers, who are obliged to have some occupation on joining, would be qualified to take posts requiring some technical skill. Many of these men are, as a matter of fact, continued in the service of the Government as civil employés in connexion with the Ordnance Survey.

There are three societies engaged in the task of finding employment for the above classes of soldiers, viz., the National Association for the Employment of Reserve Soldiers, &c., the Army and Navy Pensioners' Employment Agency, and the Corps of Commissionaires.

National Association for the Employment of Reserve Soldiers.—This Society deals more particularly with the reservists, but does not confine itself strictly to them, ordinary discharged soldiers also being helped, except when they are pensioners.* The Society claims that only men of good character are ever recommended for employment, and further states that no fees are charged by the Central Association or its branches either to the men or the employers. The Society has altogether 28 agencies in London and the principal industrial centres, besides the 43 regimental district associations to which further reference will be made. The men are registered at the time of discharge, the officer by whom the discharge is carried out acting as a kind of outlying agency. Individual applications are also received after discharge. The Society, having taken care to satisfy itself as to the qualifications of the men, then addresses the employers by means of circulars and advertisements. Personal visits are also paid to large employers. The newspapers are looked at every morning, and replies on behalf of the men are sent to suitable advertisements. The result is seen in the fact that of the 6,331 registered in 1892 employment was found for 2,838 men. The number registered, it will be noticed, is not nearly the total of the men thrown on the labour market by the army in 1892. It should be remembered, however, that 1,902 men were discharged for bad conduct, 2,795 were invalided, 2,798 were pensioners, and that, apart from the weeding out done by the officials of the Society, a certain pro-

* Pensioners are registered when specially recommended.

portion of the 29,000 referred to found employment at once by means of friends in civil life, and do not in consequence figure as applicants before the Society.

The growth of the work done by the Society is readily shown by the following table :—

Year.						Number of Men placed in Employment.
1885-86	-	-	-	-	-	174
1886-87	-	-	-	-	-	470
1887-88	-	-	-	-	-	1,013
1888-89	-	-	-	-	-	1,462
1889-90	-	-	-	-	-	1,890
1890-91	-	-	-	-	-	2,097
1891-92	-	-	-	-	-	2,614
1892-93	-	-	-	-	-	2,838

The figures for 1892-3 do not include the number of men found employment by means of the 43 regimental branches which have been recently established by the officers commanding in the various counties and districts in co-operation with the resident and county authorities, in order to provide local employment for soldiers on their return home to civil life. This is an important development, and in the first year (1892-3) the number of men found employment in this way was 1,048 which, added to the number given in the previous table for that year, yields a total of 3,886.

The annual report of the Society gives the following list of the employments found for 2,838 of these men, that is, the total number exclusive of those found work by the regimental branches :—

Details of Employment found April 1st, 1892, to March 31st 1893.

Police and Fire Brigade	-	-	-	88
Foremen at Works	-	-	-	14
Horsekeepers	-	-	-	15
Railway Porters	-	-	-	144
Post Office	-	-	-	229
Tram and Omnibus Conductors	-	-	-	47
Carmen	-	-	-	83
Porters and Messengers	-	-	-	319
Warders	-	-	-	41
Grooms and Coachmen	-	-	-	308
Storekeepers	-	-	-	22
Travellers	-	-	-	7
Clerks	-	-	-	53
Stewards	-	-	-	19
Breweries	-	-	-	21
Gardeners	-	-	-	25

Butlers and Valets	-	-	-	-	14
Waiters	-	-	-	-	40
Collectors	-	-	-	-	31
Caretakers	-	-	-	-	58
Night Watchmen	-	-	-	-	41
Timekeepers	-	-	-	-	23
Hall Porters and Gatekeepers	-	-	-	-	39
Engine Drivers	-	-	-	-	6
Railway, Iron, and other Works	-	-	-	-	243
Shopmen	-	-	-	-	9
Lodge Keepers	-	-	-	-	2
Labourers	-	-	-	-	198
Drill Instructors, &c.	-	-	-	-	13
Attendants, Asylum and Sick	-	-	-	-	198
Bailiffs, &c.	-	-	-	-	23
Gymnasium Instructors	-	-	-	-	3
Bandmaster	-	-	-	-	1
Painters	-	-	-	-	9
Bakers	-	-	-	-	1
Musicians	-	-	-	-	17
Miscellaneous	-	-	-	-	236
Joined Corps of Commissionaires	-	-	-	-	12
Yardsmen, &c.	-	-	-	-	51
Managers and Barmen	-	-	-	-	36
Cooks	-	-	-	-	7
Carpenters	-	-	-	-	9
Turnkeys (Hong Kong Prison)	-	-	-	-	7
Servants (indoor)	-	-	-	-	76
					<hr/>
					2,838
					<hr/>

From this it will be gathered that the great bulk of the men are appointed to situations requiring a certain amount of strength and intelligence, but no great skill or technical knowledge.

It may be added that the Society is supported by voluntary subscriptions and donations, and by a grant from the Government (increased this year from 200*l.* to 500*l.*), and is managed by a committee consisting almost entirely of officers of the Army. The total expenses in 1892-3 amounted to 632*l.*

The Army and Navy Pensioners' Employment Society was established in 1855, and reconstituted in 1859, with the object of "registering the names, addresses, characters, &c. of military and naval pensioners from Her Majesty's service, and procuring for them such employment as they may be capable of undertaking." It has a head office in London, and branches at Dublin, Glasgow, and Manchester, and is conducted on much the same lines as the previously described Association.

The report for the year ended December 31st, 1892, shows that a total of 657 men had been registered at the head office and branches, and that 2,650 *places* had been obtained. It must be

noted that 2,650 places does not necessarily mean that number of separate men, the exact number of whom is not ascertainable from the report.

At present the constitution of the Society only admits of the registration of pensioners, but the council of the Society have decided that Reserve men may be recommended, provided no pensioners equally suitable are available, "and as a result 202 places were passed over to Reserve men," and this employment is in addition to the 2,650 places previously mentioned.

Corps of Commissionaires.—This corps was established in 1859 with the object of finding employment for pensioners and others from the Army. The qualifications and conditions of entrance are set forth very elaborately in the rules and regulations from which the following particulars are quoted :—

Candidates for admission must have served in some branch of H.M. Regular Naval or Military Forces, and be in the receipt of a pension, except soldiers of good character who have completed limited engagements or whose temporary pensions have expired, or men belonging to the Militia, Volunteers, or Police, *if injured on duty and awarded a permanent pension*, who may be admitted on deposit in the savings bank of the Corps of 20*l.* as a guarantee.

Commissionaires whose pensions expire after joining the Corps will not be allowed to remain in it unless they have in the meantime qualified themselves for the first class, and are possessed of a minimum deposit of 25*l.* in the savings bank of the Corps.

Soldiers belonging to the Reserve of H.M.'s Regular Army or Navy will be admitted to the Corps on paying to the savings bank of the Corps sums varying from 4*l.* 10*s.* to 6*l.* 10*s.* annually. The caution and entrance fees will be the same as those paid by pensioners; but in each case a deposit varying from 5*l.* to 12*l.* must be placed in the savings bank on joining. Admission will, *as a rule*, be restricted to men who were non-commissioned officers at the time of discharge, musicians, servants, and such as have a practical acquaintance with some mechanical trade, and no one will be entered under 5 ft. 7 in. in height, and unless he is in perfect health. Reservists wishing to retain the rank they held on their discharge from H.M.S. must qualify themselves for it by depositing the *full amount* of security required by the regulations. A sergeant, therefore wishing to retain his rank will have to place 15*l.*, and a full corporal 10*l.*, in the savings bank of the Corps, when he becomes a member of the institution. Reservists who have married are not eligible unless they have saved 50*l.*

It will be noticed that candidates other than pensioners have to pay what is practically a guarantee for their honesty, the pension in ordinary cases serving the same purpose. There are also certain entrance fees and monthly payments as under :—

"List of entrance fees and monthly payments to the funds of the Corps by a commissionaire whose age is 42 years or under, and classification of health No. 1.

ORDINARY ENTRANCE FEES.

					£	s.	d.
Caution money	-	-	-	-	-	1	0 0
General fund	-	-	-	-	-	0	10 0
Sick fund	-	-	-	-	-	0	5 0
Convalescent hospital	-	-	-	-	-	0	5 0

Total ordinary entrance fees to be paid on joining £2 0 0

ORDINARY MONTHLY PAYMENTS.

					s.	d.
Clothing	-	-	-	-	5	6
General fund	-	-	-	-	1	6
Sick fund	-	-	-	-	1	6
Convalescent hospital	-	-	-	-	0	2

Total monthly payments · - 8 8

Besides the above fees, every commissionaire must on entrance deposit at least 10s. in the savings bank of the Corps.

N.B.—The deposits by commissionaires in the savings bank of the Corps will be at the rate of 6d. per week for the first three months, and 1s. afterwards, till permanently employed, when the rate will be according to the value of the situation, but never less than 1s. per week."

These payments are primarily intended to cover the cost of the clothing, sick allowances, &c., to the men. There are also exceptional payments to be made by certain classes of men, the apparent object being to place all men on the same footing with regard to the expenses of the Corps in connexion with them.

The general effect of the great care taken to exclude bad characters, and to employ those men only who have something at stake in the shape of either a pension or a deposit, which may be forfeited for dishonesty, is to ensure a class of men in whom the public have confidence, and for whom work is easily obtainable. The safety of the property entrusted to a commissionaire, and his fidelity whilst in the service of his employer, is further guaranteed in ordinary cases by the Corps in sums varying from 100*l.* for sergeant-majors to 25*l.* for privates. At certain seasons of the year the demand for men is greater than the Corps can supply. Their wages are to a certain extent regulated by scale, which, however, is often exceeded.

The Corps numbered 1,949 men at December 31st 1892, and were classed as follows:—

In permanent employment in London	-	1,083
In temporary employment in London	-	102
Out-quarter divisions	-	620
On detachment from head-quarters	-	110
On post	-	16
At head-quarters (including staff)	-	18

Total strength of Corps - - 1,949

Its growth has been steady ever since its establishment, as will be seen from the following table, which gives the average number on the rolls for every tenth year.

Year.						Average Number on Rolls.
1859	-	-	-	-	-	42
1869	-	-	-	-	-	417
1879	-	-	-	-	-	867
1889	-	-	-	-	-	1,734
1892	-	-	-	-	-	1,925

Nearly all of these men were engaged as messengers, attendants, watchmen, ticket-takers, money-takers, and in a great variety of miscellaneous occupations, all involving a certain measure of trust.

The Corps has branches termed "out-quarter divisions" at Belfast, Birmingham, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, and Nottingham; and is supported partly by regimental and other subscriptions and donations, and partly by an annual tax of 10s. per head paid by permanent employers of the men. The latter yielded 645*l.* out of the total income of 2,422*l.* in the year 1892.

(d.) AGENCIES FOR FINDING WORK FOR DISCHARGED PRISONERS.

The question of the assistance of discharged prisoners by the provision of employment or otherwise, belongs properly rather to an analysis of crime than of want of employment. A considerable proportion, however, of those discharged from local prisons hardly belong to the criminal classes, and the difficulty that they meet with in obtaining work where a character is required is no small factor in the unemployed problem. As, moreover, it is this class from which, as will be seen later on, most of the "labour colonies" hitherto established on the continent for the unemployed chiefly draw their materials, it is a matter of interest to know the methods pursued in this country by the agencies which attempt to overcome the difficulties which they meet with in the search for work.

In 1877 the "Central Committee of Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies" was formed to promote combined action amongst the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies, the establishment of such a society in connexion with every gaol, and to further the efficiency of such societies. In 1878 there were 38 prisons which had no aid society connected with them. In 1887 there was no prison without one, the last gap being filled up in that year. These societies received the support of the Commissioners of Prisons, who considered that finding employment and helping

prisoners after discharge could more effectively be undertaken by outside agencies than directly by the Government, and obtained a grant of money from the Treasury to be expended for the benefit of discharged prisoners under the supervision of these societies. To them also, if they will receive it, is committed the gratuity earned by each prisoner, to expend for his benefit.

The report of the "Central Committee" of the work done in 1891 relates to 47 societies, the returns of 14 others not being available for that year. The total number of discharged prisoners dealt with by the societies making returns was 18,127. The kind of aid given by the Glasgow, Surrey, and South London Societies (dealing with 2,352 persons) is not given. Of the remainder the mode of treatment is classified under the following heads:—

Sent to sea - - - - -	191
Returned to former employer - - -	560
Placed in other employment - - -	1,885
Provided with clothes, tools, &c. - -	2,433
Temporarily assisted - - - - -	6,233
Enlisted - - - - -	13
Sent to friends at home - - - - -	1,083
Sent to friends abroad - - - - -	25
Emigrated - - - - -	84
Sent to refugees - - - - -	346
Declined assistance - - - - -	411
Dismissed for bad conduct - - - -	192
Re-arrested or re-convicted - - -	389
Otherwise disposed of - - - - -	1,899
Cases in hand - - - - -	31
	<hr/>
	15,775
Not classified - - - - -	2,352
	<hr/>
	18,127
	<hr/>

The methods of procedure and degrees of efficiency of the different societies vary considerably. But the main feature on which the success of the undertaking is considered to depend is the employment of agents, whose chief business it is to make themselves acquainted with the qualifications of each prisoner applying for aid on discharge, and by personally visiting employers, foremen, &c., to endeavour to obtain employment for which the man may be fit. Until employment is found the agent sees that the man under his charge has decent board and lodging, and that he does the best he can himself to find work. In some cases the best that can be done for discharged prisoners is to communicate with their friends, leaving them, if willing, to find employment. Some of the societies have agents in various towns, or utilize the services of other aid societies to which they

contribute. The North Lancashire Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society has agents in Accrington, Barrow-in-Furness, Blackburn, Burnley, Clitheroe, Chorley, Colne, Darwen, Fleetwood, Lancaster, Preston. The Royal Society for the Assistance of Discharged Prisoners works in co-operation with 22 extra-Metropolitan Societies, and has moreover special agents of its own in a few important towns, such as Manchester and Birmingham, and has shipping agents at several ports to whom are sent such men as seem to be adapted for a seafaring life.

Efforts are made to deal separately with each discharged prisoner as far as possible and to avoid throwing ex-prisoners together. With the exception of convicts under ticket-of-leave there is no means of following up the after-history of those assisted, nor is it thought desirable that any attempt in this direction should be made, as it might make it more difficult for such persons to make a fresh start in life.

In the returns published by the "Central Committee" men and women are both included. The number of rescue homes and refuges for women is so large that in dealing with female prisoners the chief difficulty is to induce the women to submit to the restraints and regulations of the homes offered to them. So much is this the case that in their report for 1892 the Commissioners of Prisons publish a statement of one of their most experienced chaplains to the effect that there is an overlapping of labour in rescue effort which is acting very perniciously on the work generally, and that a capable chaplain with the aid of one or two lady visitors can make suitable provision for almost any number of women who may require help.

The Salvation Army has a department called the "Prison Gate Brigade" for providing work, food, and shelter for discharged prisoners, and for such "first offenders" as may be handed over by the magistrates to the charge of the Army. The work consists of firewood-cutting, mat-making, and shoe-making on the premises of the brigade, and efforts are made by the Army to obtain outside situations for such of the men as have satisfied the superintendent of their willingness to work, and to lead an honest life. Out of 658 men dealt with between January 1891, the date when operations were commenced, and the end of May 1893, 90 had been sent to the Army Wharf at Battersea, 40 to the farm at Hadleigh, 130 to situations, 15 to hospitals, 40 had been restored to friends, 7 sent to sea, while 6 had gone abroad. Of the remainder 198 had left of their own accord, 80 were discharged for disobedience, &c., and 52 were still in the home.

(vi.) THE POOR-LAW IN RELATION TO THE ABLE-BODIED UNEMPLOYED.

The present Poor-law aims at relieving destitution only, and though work may be imposed as a test, relief is not given in the shape of the payment of wages, but according to the necessities of each case. All persons receiving poor-law relief, moreover, lose for the time their rights as citizens. It is not proposed in this report to attempt a general description of poor-law administration. The rules under which relief may be given by boards of guardians to the sick, aged, and infirm, differ from those applicable to the able-bodied unemployed, with whom we are here exclusively concerned.

The following extracts from a memorandum prepared in 1886 by Sir Hugh Owen, K.C.B., secretary to the Local Government Board, describe sufficiently for the purposes of this report the rules applying to the relief of able-bodied male persons, and the practice of guardians in relation thereto :—

The regulations in force in the metropolis and the great centres of population are contained in the Out Relief Regulation Order. That Order provides :—

- (1.) That no relief shall be given to any able-bodied male person while he is employed for wages or other hire or remuneration by any person.
- (2.) That every able-bodied male person, if relieved out of the workhouse, shall be set to work by the guardians, and be kept employed under their direction and superintendence, so long as he continues to receive relief.
- (3.) That the observance of the foregoing regulations shall not be imperative in the following cases :—
 - (a.) The case of a person receiving relief on account of sudden and urgent necessity ;
 - (b.) The case of a person receiving relief on account of any sickness, accident, or bodily or mental infirmity affecting such person or any of his family ; and
 - (c.) The case of a person receiving relief for the purpose of defraying the expenses of the burial of any of his family.
- (4.) That whenever the guardians allow relief to any able-bodied male person out of the workhouse, one-half at least of the relief so allowed shall be given in articles of food or fuel, or in other articles of absolute necessity.
- (5.) That when the guardians set able-bodied male persons to work under the above regulations, they shall within 30 days report to the Local Government Board the place or places at which the able-bodied paupers are set to work, the sort or sorts of work in which they or any of them are employed, the times and mode of work, and the provision made for superintending them while working ; and shall forthwith discontinue or alter the same if the Local Government Board shall so require.

Further, the Order, with the view of meeting cases of an exceptional character, provides that if the guardians shall upon consideration of the special circumstances of any particular case deem it expedient to depart from any of the above regulations, and within 21 days after

the departure shall report the same and the grounds thereof to the Local Government Board, the relief which may have been so given in such case by such guardians, before the answer to the report shall have been returned by the Board, shall not be deemed to be contrary to the provisions of the Order; and if the Local Government Board shall approve of the departure, and shall notify such approval to the guardians, all relief given in such case after such notification, so far as the same shall be in accordance with the terms and conditions of the approval, shall be lawful; anything in the Order to the contrary notwithstanding.

It will be observed, therefore, that the guardians in the case of the unions to which the Order applies are not precluded from granting out-relief to able-bodied male persons who require it in consequence of being out of employment, subject to the condition that such persons shall be set to work by the guardians and be kept employed under their directions and supervision, so long as they continue to receive relief.

In other unions, comprising chiefly agricultural districts and towns with a small population, relief is administered under the General Out-door Relief Prohibitory Order. That Order requires that every able-bodied male pauper shall be relieved wholly in the workhouse of the union, except in the following cases:—

- (1.) Where such person shall require relief on account of sudden and urgent necessity.
- (2.) Where such person shall require relief on account of any sickness, accident, or bodily or mental infirmity affecting himself or any of his family; and,
- (3.) Where such person shall require relief for the purpose of defraying the expenses either wholly or in part of the burial of any of his family.

In the case of this order, also, there is a proviso to meet cases of an exceptional character. The order provides that in case the guardians of any union depart in any particular instance from any of the regulations, and within 15 days after such departure report the same and the grounds thereof to the Local Government Board, and the Board approve of the departure, the relief granted in such particular instances shall, if otherwise lawful, not be deemed to be unlawful or be subject to be disallowed.

In the case of certain unions to which the regulations in the General Out-door Relief Prohibitory Order apply, an Out-door Labour Test Order has been issued. This Order is intended to provide for exceptional circumstances, which, in the opinion of the guardians, render it necessary to give out-door relief to able-bodied male persons. Where it is in force, the granting of out-door relief to such persons is subject to conditions similar to those in the out-door relief regulations above referred to, the chief condition being that any such person so relieved shall be set to work by the guardians.

The principle on which the several Orders referred to are based is that able-bodied male persons shall only receive relief from the poor rates, on the ground of being out of employment, subject to such a test of destitution as is involved in the acceptance of an order for admission to the workhouse, or the performance of a task of work.

(vii.) THE CHARITY ORGANISATION SOCIETY AND
KINDRED ASSOCIATIONS IN RELATION TO THE
UNEMPLOYED.

Among the voluntary organisations dealing on a systematic plan with the relief of distress the London Charity Organisation Society and some of the provincial societies bearing the same name occupy a prominent position as regards both the practical work of administration and the contribution they have made to the study of the conditions and limitations under which distress arising from various causes may be permanently assisted. There appear to be about 88 societies in the United Kingdom either bearing this title or having somewhat similar objects and in correspondence with the central society in London. As might be expected they differ among themselves to a considerable extent in their principles of action. We are concerned with them here merely in so far as they deal with those whose distress arises from want of employment. It is necessary, however, to give a very brief sketch of the general plan of operations which they usually pursue in order to understand their policy with regard to the unemployed. For this purpose the London Society, the work of which is by far the most extensive, is taken as typical.

In the Official Manual it is stated that "the Society consists of a federation of district committees, whose general principles of action are determined by a central council upon which each district committee is represented The Society seeks to form side by side with every board of guardians at least one committee containing representatives of the board and of all the charitable agencies at work in the local Poor Law division Each committee, so far as it can, raises its own funds locally. . . . It is the duty of district committees to endeavour to effect a division of work between the Poor Law and charity. They accordingly leave to the Poor Law such cases of destitution as cannot in their opinion be effectually assisted by charitable help; but cases in which there is a prospect of some permanent good being done they endeavour to help from charitable sources. In such cases they seek assistance from the agencies severally best able to deal with them; and when these fail, they consider themselves under an obligation to secure that the treatment which they have advised shall be carried out."

The main principles on which the Society works may perhaps be thus summarised:

(1.) The *locality* rather than the *class* of distress is, in the main, taken as the unit in dealing with distress. There are indeed a few special committees (on emigration, medical work, &c.), but the backbone of the Society's operations is the group of district

committees. The maxim is to "centralise information, localise responsibility." This principle clearly marks off the Society's work from that of centralised institutions, each dealing with a special class.

(2.) In each district the attempt is made to federate existing relief agencies so as to secure unity of action.

(3.) By co-operation with the Poor Law authorities it is sought in each district to effect a division of function, the Society attempting the permanent "cure" of cases of distress which appear to admit of such cure, and leaving others to the Poor Law.

(4.) The Society aims at giving relief only in cases where there appears a prospect of permanent good being done; and at treating completely and adequately such cases as it does relieve. Thus, as a rule it refuses doles of food and money, and invariably makes an elaborate inquiry into the circumstances of each case with a view to determine if it can be permanently helped. Such inquiry is not directed to ascertain and reward "merit," but to diagnose the causes of distress.

These principles being kept in view, it may be said to be the general policy of the Society not to relieve ordinary cases of want of employment, such as continually arise from one cause or another in a normal state of the labour-market. It is held that the proper and only effective "cure" for a carpenter or dock labourer who has lost a job is to find another. To give him money might often tend to relax the energy with which he is searching for work; to provide him with work (even if practicable) would have the same effect in still greater degree, beside tending to dislocate the labour market. As regards helping him to find work, the Society holds as a general rule that the search for work is usually most effectively carried on by the person most interested in its success. This argument applies obviously only to the normal fringe of "unemployed," who at any given time, even in a favourable state of the labour-market, find themselves out of a job, and is admittedly inapplicable to times of unforeseen and exceptional scarcity of work. It is based on the assumption that, at the time, there is *on the whole* a sufficient supply of work to go round, so that any action which relaxes the energy with which a given workman seeks his share of that employment is undesirable. The argument fails when, owing to exceptional circumstances, there is not enough work to go round. Accordingly the Charity Organisation Society draws a sharp distinction between "ordinary" and "exceptional" distress, especially as regards want of employment.

Before, however, passing on to the policy pursued in cases of "exceptional" scarcity of work, it should be noticed that the line taken by the various societies and district committees with regard to providing labour, relieving the unemployed, and assisting them to obtain work, is by no means uniform throughout the country. In Scotland, for example, where the Poor Law does not contemplate the relief of the able-bodied, the division

of function between private effort and the Poor Law inculcated above might naturally be interpreted as leaving the provision of labour yards as tests for able-bodied applicants for relief within the sphere of the voluntary society. Thus the Glasgow Charity Organisation Society and the "Associations for Improving the Condition of the Poor" at Edinburgh and Paisley provide wood-chopping yards for men and sewing for women.

In Edinburgh the labour yard is used "both as a means of giving temporary employment and as a test of willingness to work." The men work from six to seven hours a day, payment being by the piece, with a minimum of 1s. a day and dinner, and additional "help, if needed, for his wife and family." During the year 1892, 1,158 persons were offered work in the yard, which was accepted by about 75 per cent. In Glasgow (1891-92) work in the wood-chopping yard was offered to 318 men and accepted by 257. Payment is by results, with an average of 1s. 3d. per day of 7½ hours. There were 68 women employed in making up clothing, which was sold to the public. At Paisley the men in the wood-chopping yard can earn 1s. a day. Employment was found in it for 36 men during the year.

A few English Charity Organisation Societies, especially in the North, also provide work. In Newcastle (in 1891-92) work in the firewood yard was offered to 509 and accepted by 202, while a ladies' committee found charring for 67 women and gave needlework to 39. The firewood and clothing were sold at the office.

The Darlington Charity Organisation Society opened a wood-yard towards the close of the year 1891; and a "Boys' Messenger Brigade," which was started in 1890, is also under their control. The cost of the two institutions for the year 1891-2 was 345*l.*

In 1891-92, the Liverpool Central Relief and Charity Organisation Society gave 776 orders "to men alleging want of work as a reason for seeking relief" to work in the wood-chopping workshops. Only 288 accepted work. They earned an average of 1s. 8d. a day, additional relief being given, if necessary, to the family. The deficiency for the year was 266*l.* The society has also a work-room for women. It regards these workshops as indispensable as a test in a district where casual labourers form so large a proportion of applicants.*

The Rochdale Charity Organisation Society also has a firewood factory, in which 33 persons were employed during 1891-92.

The London Society, however, distrusts the provision of work by voluntary agencies, even as a test, in ordinary times. "Our objection to the use of labour tests is that they tend to become a substitute for inquiry and for the individual treatment of cases. . . . Tests are for the Poor Law, which has only

* Report of Liverpool Central Relief and Charity Organisation Society, 1891-2, pp. 7 and 8.

"to prove the fact of destitution. Those who would help must go deeper." *

Turning from the provision of employment to the work of assisting persons to obtain employment, it will be seen from the following statement, extracted from the last report of the London Charity Organisation Society, that the work done in this direction in most London districts is for reasons given above very limited:—

District.	Total Cases relieved (1891-2).	Cases relieved by employment (1891-2).
Kensington	367	—
Fulham	505	38
Paddington	221	16
Chelsea	324	15
St. George's (Hanover Square)	613	207
St. James's	174	16
St. Marylebone	531	13
Hampstead	151	3
North St. Pancras	192	5
South St. Pancras	397	9
Islington	451	19
Hackney	206	19
St. Giles's	181	6
Holborn	93	8
Clerkenwell	303	10
City	148	5
Shoreditch	277	16
Bethnal Green	288	9
Whitechapel	211	4
St. George's, East	262	1
Stepney	361	12
Mile End	287	3
Bow	464	19
Poplar	339	25
St. Saviour's	206	8
Newington	516	24
St. Olave's	463	20
Vauxhall	625	5
Lambeth	330	31
Brixton	148	2
Wandsworth	90	3
Battersea	508	23
Clapham	51	1
Camberwell	271	9
Dulwich	164	—
Greenwich	716	46
Deptford	300	—
Woolwich	344	31
Lewisham	62	—
Totals	12,040	670

The only London district in which this form of assistance is at all prevalent is seen to be St. George's, Hanover Square, where a labour register is kept, and a certain amount of work found.

* Register of Charity Organisation and Relief Societies, 1890-1. Introduction, pp. vii and viii.

According to the reports of the Provincial Societies for 1891-2, several appear to have concerned themselves with finding work for applicants, but of these some confined their attentions to women and girls suitable for household work. The following is a brief summary of the particulars given in the reports, so far as they relate to finding employment:—

Name of Society.	Particulars of Work done.
Cambridge Charity Organisation Society	Register kept of persons who can be recommended for household work.
Macclesfield Relief Association - -	Register for charwomen and needlewomen kept.
Newcastle Charity Organisation Society	Charing found for 67 women and needlework for 39.
Worcester Charity Organisation Society	A free registry for young servants kept.
Birkenhead, Charity Organisation and Provident Society.	Employment found for 15 men and 74 women.
Alford Canterbury Provident Relief Association.	Employment found for 20 men.
Halifax Charity Organisation Society -	Of 34 applicants, 10 were found work.
Huddersfield Charity Organisation Society.	27 persons were found employment through Labour Bureau.
Leith Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.	75 persons were found employment.
Liverpool Central Relief and Charity Organisation Society.	Employment was found in factory districts for 36 persons, chiefly widows.

In addition to the above, the Oxford Anti-Mendicity and Charity Organisation Association undertakes to investigate the cases of vagrants, and if possible to help them to employment; and the Paisley Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor endeavours to find outside work for those who have been engaged in the firewood factory connected with the Association.

On the other hand, there are some Charity Organisation Societies and district committees which not only do not attempt directly to find work for applicants, but reject out-of-work cases in ordinary times altogether. Others (as in some districts in East London) refuse relief to the "unemployed" man, but offer to support his wife and family if he will go into the workhouse.

Although the Charity Organisation Society in most cases does not attempt to find employment for men out of work, and generally refuses applications for such assistance, it does not on that account necessarily refuse help of any kind. Thus many district committees make a practice of offering to help any child of the applicant old enough for service to obtain a situation, and frequently supplies her with an outfit. If any member of the family is prevented from working by sickness and it is clear that the father's distress is not of a chronic nature, medical treatment and convalescent aid are procured. Such assistance does not appear under the head of "employment found," although its ultimate object is to enable the recipient to return to work. It is a rule of the Society, not always perhaps observed, never to

dismiss an application without first considering whether some method of relief other than that applied for may not usefully be adopted, and the fact that in many instances what is known as an "out-of-work" case is frequently dismissed without any offer of aid is due to the inherent practical difficulties of giving effective help.

On the whole the principles laid down by the London Society with respect to the treatment of ordinary out-of-work cases must be regarded as general principles of guidance, rather than as rigid rules applicable to every case. It has been made sufficiently clear in an earlier part of this report, that causes of distress are so intermixed that it is often impossible in practice to draw a distinct line between "out-of-work" and other cases; and the success of the policy of leaving certain classes of cases to the Poor Law must depend to some extent on the completeness with which the local voluntary relief agencies are organized. Otherwise "leaving to the Poor Law" may mean passing on to another and laxer voluntary relief society.

Again, there is in practice no sharp dividing line between normal and exceptional distress, although the broad distinction is a most important one, and is fundamentally assumed in the policy of the Charity Organisation Society with regard to the unemployed. To this question of the relief of those out of work in a time of exceptional scarcity of employment, we may now turn.

The attitude of the Charity Organisation Society towards this question is clearly and concisely laid down in a published memorandum entitled "Suggestions and suggested rules for dealing with exceptional distress by local committees," which was originally included in a report by a select committee of the Society dealing chiefly with the administration of the disastrous Mansion House Relief Fund of 1885-86.* The suggestions are sufficiently important to be reprinted here in full:—

I. GENERAL POLICY OF RELIEF.

It has now been repeatedly proved that the only way to meet widespread and exceptional distress, without doing permanent injury to the mass of the poor, is to adhere to certain general principles and fixed lines of action which they will readily understand. Indecision and vacillation at such a time produce grave mischief.†

* Report of a Select Committee on Exceptional Distress, 1886. Cassell & Co. 6d.

† In a time of "commercial embarrassment" "an ill-regulated distribution of charitable donations may not only fail to relieve the class for whose benefit the funds were collected, but further diminish the resources they would otherwise have obtained by their own exertions."—Dr. KAY, Third Annual Report of the Poor Law Commissioners.

"It is the stoutest, not the kindest heart that is wanted" "in times of scarcity or unusual stagnation"; and "all we have to do is to weather the storm as well as we are able, taking additional care to be vigilant and strict in keeping all members of the community within the bounds of duty."—Quoted by Mr. LONGLEY in his "Report to the Local Government Board on Poor Law Administration in London." 1874.

The creation of a large relief fund tends to occasion additional difficulties and perplexities. Confusion and waste can only be avoided by taking careful measures for the administration of relief beforehand, quietly and without panic.

"Tests" and inquiry.

Classes requiring relief.

To deal with large numbers of people quickly and effectually "tests" are necessary, no less than inquiry.

Roughly speaking, applications come from three classes :

- (1) Thrifty and careful men ;
- (2) Men of different grades of respectability, with a decent home ;
- (3) The idle, loafing class, or those brought low by drink or vice ;

To the first of these, relief should be given ; but if public works are opened they should be recommended to take such work, not as a test, but as temporary employment.

To the second class (according to the character of the case) relief should be offered (1) conditionally on employment in public or other works ; or (2) the applicant should be referred to the Poor Law labour-yard ; or (3) admitted to the workhouse, while the wife and family are supported by charitable relief outside.

The third class should be left to the Poor Law. Relief by way of alms only maintains them in their evil habits, discourages the thrifty and striving, and leads to still further neglect of wife and family.

Public and charitable "works."

Public works should not be undertaken unless there is clear evidence that the want of employment is so great that some such temporary measures are absolutely necessary to prevent better-class working men from living in semi-starvation. Their tendency must be to keep labour in the same grooves. If the distress is occasioned by some temporary and definite cause, after a short period there will be an improvement in the labour market. If the distress is occasioned by deeper and more permanent causes, public works will act merely as a palliative which may divert attention from the source of the evil and tend to become as chronic as the shortness of work.

If public or other works are opened—

(1) Men should only be admitted to them after inquiry or on satisfactory recommendation.

(2) The wages and the hours should be as nearly as possible according to contract rates.

(3) Care should be taken to supply sufficient overlookers, and to group the men according to character and ability.

(4) If a meal is wanted, or clothing, it is better that this should be supplied separately from a relief fund. The employment should be given, as far as possible, in accordance with ordinary business contracts, and not as "charity work," which tends to be as ill-done as it is ill-paid, and to degrade men instead of improving them.

(5) Public and other relief works should be of a local character, planned according to estimates drawn by the local authorities, and conducted under local superintendence. This will be some guarantee against waste and irresponsibility. Such works only should be undertaken as are likely to create the least disturbance in the labour market.

Labour-yards.

Poor Law labour-yards are sometimes the only test available, but they have a tendency to become permanent institutions for the supply of cheaply-paid and practically useless labour to casual and idle labourers of all kinds.

The plan of applying a modified form of the workhouse test in certain cases, by which the man is maintained in the workhouse while the wife and family are supported by voluntary charity, is suggested for the following reasons: The modified workhouse test.

(1) The assistance is adequate; no homes are broken up, and the relief is so given as to meet the wants of the family—the wife and children as well as the husband.

(2) It will act as an education in provident habits.

(3) The burden of sacrifice will be thrown on the man; whereas in all other schemes for dealing with this class, it is liable to be thrown on the woman.

II. THE LOCAL COMMITTEES.

It is clear that none of the three classes mentioned above, except the first and part of the second, can be properly dealt with, unless there is co-operation between the administrators of charitable funds and the Poor Law guardians. This co-operation is indispensable. Co-operation with guardians indispensable.

That there may be agencies for this co-operation and for the direct distribution of relief local relief committees are necessary. These should include representatives— Of whom they should consist.

- (a) Of the Principal Land and House Owners,
- (b) Of Employers of Labour,
- (c) Of Working Men—including representatives of trade societies and benefit clubs,
- (d) Of Charitable Agencies,
- (e) Of Poor Law Guardians and of the Vestry,
- (f) Of School Teachers and Visitors,
- (g) Of Clergy of all Denominations.

Committees should be comparatively small and composed of members well acquainted with the district. To such persons the street or neighbourhood in which a man lives may be a rough test of some value. So far as possible, people of judgment, who have had some experience, and have already interested themselves in the work of charity, should be chosen. Members, *e.g.*, ought to know what questions to ask, and how to take down an application. The Clergy should act as advisers to the Committee, rather than as almoners or honorary officials. Their knowledge of the district, or of the persons who apply, is often very valuable.

The area covered by the Committee should be comparatively small.*

To avoid a rush of cases—

- (1) Unnecessary publicity should, in the earlier stages, be avoided.
- (2) The rules which the Committee propose to follow should subsequently be advertised in local papers, and given to all applicants. These rules should show in general terms, but clearly, whom the Committee

Area of Committee.
How to avoid a rush.

* "I venture to say," writes Mr. Salter, "that, as an active member of the Kensington and Lambeth Charity Organisation Committees for ten years or more, I was struck by the advantage of the small Local Committees, and the system of assigning certain streets to certain members of Committee. A small Local Committee is more likely to secure the services of the clergy and others immediately concerned than a Charity Organisation Committee which deals with a large district. The knowledge, the interest, and the responsibility of its members are greater."

wish to relieve and whom they intend to leave to the Poor Law. (See below, IV.)

(3) It should be clearly stated that relief will only be given after inquiry, or with a labour test.

(4) Trustworthy persons, who have been selected for the purpose by the Committee, and who are well acquainted with the district, should refer to the Committee cases which they believe they can thoroughly recommend. A number of suitable cases may thus be brought to light, and the multitude of personal applications in part avoided.

III. INQUIRY.

Application should in all cases be made by the head of the family only.

Application
on recommen-
dations.

Application forms (see Form A), or forms of reference, should be given to members of Committee, selected employers and foremen, the officers of trade and benefit societies, and to clergymen and district visitors of experience.*

These forms should be given by them to applicants whom they recommend as suitable, according to the rules. (See above.)

The applicant should be required to attend at the office, and bring with him the application or reference form, duly filled up and signed; and, if the person who sends the case is not an employer or foreman, a recommendation from the employer or foreman will be necessary.

In all these cases the home will be visited and the reference or recommendation verified, if the pressure is too great to do more. If not, other points in the case may be taken up with a view to a more thorough treatment of it.

Direct
application.

If there is no reference of the applicant to the Committee, he will attend at the office, the application form will be filled up, and such inquiries made as the time allows.

Two things should never be omitted :—

(a) *The home should be visited.*

(b) *An employer or local reference should be communicated with.*

Who should
make the
inquiry.

The inquiry should be made by members of Committees and others who have had some experience in relief work. They may in many instances require the assistance of one or more paid officers. It was found last year that much time was saved by the use of a form (see Form B) for corresponding with references or employers.†

Inquiry of
Relieving
Officers.

To ensure co-operation with the Guardians, it will be well to ascertain from them whether cases are known to them; and the Guardians might be asked to supply a list of the names of persons in receipt of parochial assistance. Similarly lists of those relieved by the Committee should be sent to the Guardians from time to time.

* It is best not to use the application form as the paper of reference. The details to be filled up in the application form can, as a rule, be entered with less trouble and more accurately when the applicant is seen at the office of the Committee.

† Mr. Edgecombe (Kensington) writes: "Employers and references were almost always communicated with, usually by letter; it was observed that employers replied with singular readiness."

IV. DECISION.

To prevent delay and haphazard and unjust decisions, it will be found convenient to come to an understanding with regard to groups of cases; with this object it is suggested that the following rules should be adopted by the Committee, and only deviated from by vote on any special case. Sifting of cases. Decisions.

1. That persons known to be drunkards, "loafers," or persons of bad character, should not be assisted.*

2. That no one in receipt of Poor Law relief should be assisted, except by the payment of club arrears.

3. That no cases of chronic distress, in which the head of the family is habitually out of work in the winter or never in regular work, be assisted.

4. That no cases of chronic distress occasioned by long-continued illness, or by old age, be assisted.†

5. That no persons living in common lodging-houses should be assisted.

6. That relief should not be given to persons who have not resided in the district of the Poor Law Union for more than six months, unless there be special reason to the contrary.

7. That those who have made any provision for the future should be assisted.‡

It should be remembered that for several of the above classes it will be best to apply some form of labour test, *e.g.*, the labour-yard, &c.; they would then obtain relief conditionally. But no applicants should be sent to public works, or works set on foot by any relief association, except on recommendation from some trustworthy source or after inquiry.

Decisions upon cases should be made by Committee, and not left to individual almoners.

The Committee should meet daily, if possible. At least half the meetings should be held in the evening, so that working men may be able to attend. Meetings.

V.

Relief can be varied and adjusted to the actual wants of an applicant, only if the inquiry is sufficient, or the person who recommends the case has a real knowledge of it. To minimise friction and delay and promote effective relief, these two means of discrimination—recommendation and inquiry—should be worked together. Suitable relief only possible if there is sufficient inquiry with trustworthy information.

Relief should not be given at the office, but taken to the homes by members of the Committee, almoners, or others. Valuable information is frequently obtained in this way, and crowding at the offices is still further prevented. Relief not given at office.

* This rule should be adhered to even when there is a wife and family. Otherwise the husband is encouraged to neglect them. Few persons realise how strong a feeling self-reliant working men have as to the waste and injustice of the relief thoughtlessly given to this class.

† These would naturally be dealt with by the more permanent relief agencies.

‡ Tests of this provision would be membership of a club or benefit society, membership of a trade society, savings as shown by bank book, &c.

The visitor also may find that the relief ordered should be withheld for further instructions.

A receipt should be required in all cases upon the Application Form (see back of the Form).

Scale of relief. If, owing to the number of applications, it is not possible to adjust the relief to the wants of each case, the following scale, the sufficiency of which has been tested by experience, should be adopted as a minimum :

Weekly Scale for Food and Fuel exclusive of Rent.

An adult living alone, 3s. 6d.

Two or more adults living together, 2s. 6d. each.

Children under 4 years, 6d. each.

" from 4 to 12 years, 1s. each.

" from 12 to 16 years, 1s. 6d. each.

Not more than 10s. in one week should, as a rule, be given to any family, as there are generally in large families earnings or income (other than charity) available.

Relief in kind. Relief in kind is not recommended. It is no safeguard to give such relief in doubtful cases, cases in which the head of a family is a drunkard, or where the inquiry is defective. Knowledge of the case is the only real safeguard.

If, however, relief is given in kind, it should be by orders on any respectable tradesman in the neighbourhood. (See Form C.) An arbitrary and injurious interference with the custom of the smaller and poorer shopkeepers in the district will thus be avoided.

Soup-kitchens tend to bring masses of the poor together to be relieved wholesale. The chronic poor may be accustomed to this method of relief. Those of a better type, whom it is the problem of charity to relieve as far as possible, privately and without lowering their self-respect, will shrink from such distributions.

In special cases it may be found desirable to assist by providing meals. Orders upon cook and coffee shops, or coffee taverns, should then be given. It may be necessary to provide food for children in this way.

If clothing or boots are required, these too may be provided after strict inquiry, and when there is definite promise of work.

If boots are given for children, inquiry should always be made of the school master or mistress in the first instance, and they should be informed of the gift.

As a rule it is best to take a view of the whole case, and to estimate its wants, with a view to its ultimate requirements; and then to give to the applicant in money what is necessary for his adequate assistance. If this be a temporary allowance it will be given weekly.

Report of visitor as to use of money.

If money is given for any special purpose, the visitor or almoner who has taken it should be required to report that it has been expended in the manner agreed upon with the applicant. He should see the receipts.

Payment of rent.

It is not desirable to pay the applicant's rent if it can be avoided. But if, as is often the case, a portion of the relief will be used for the rent, it is better to recognise the fact and pay a week's current rent.

Back rent should under no circumstances be paid.

The following further forms of relief are suggested :—

(1) Payment of club arrears, after consultation with workmen upon the Committee, and reference to the Secretary of the Club, to whom the money should be paid.

(2.) Taking tools and necessaries out of pawn. The money should in this case be paid to the pawnbroker direct.

(3.) Medical relief.

(4.) Migration.

(5.) The emigration of carefully chosen emigrants to colonies in which it has been ascertained that there is a definite opening for them.

It has been found that many of the most distressing cases occur after a period of distress, and as the result of the privation and sickness which it causes. However large the fund, therefore, there should be no over-haste in distributing it. The money will be hardly less wanted some weeks after than at the actual time of the greatest pressure of applications. And it will be easier then to do justice to the work.

Cases after
pressure is
over.

Issued Dec. 1889.

An attempt to apply the above principles to the relief of a special class of unemployed cases in East London in the Winter of 1892-93 is fully described in the chapter which deals with the work of the Mansion House Conference.

It is not always, however, that distress is so clearly marked out as "exceptional" as was the case with the unemployed dealt with by the Mansion House Committee. Even, therefore, if there be agreement as to general principles, there is often room for difference of opinion as to their application in any given case. Some persons, for example, class ordinary recurrent "seasonal" slackness of trade as "exceptional." The Charity Organisation Society would on the other hand hold that it is one of the ordinary "trade risks," which a man engaged in such a trade may reasonably be expected to provide for. On the other hand, a prolonged frost may abnormally extend the period during which bricklayers' work is suspended. Distress so caused is usually classed as "exceptional" because it cannot be exactly foreseen. Yet over a period of years it is perfectly certain that some winters will be specially severe. It is to be remembered that the term "exceptional" is a general and not a scientific term, and it should be applied to such scarcity of work as, in the present state of human foresight, those engaged in a given trade are not likely to foresee and provide against.

Specimens of Forms A. and B. referred to are given on the two following pages.

[APPLICATION FORM A.*]

_____ Committee No. _____

Date _____

Name in full _____

Address _____ Time in district _____

Previous Address _____

Age _____ Married _____ Single _____ Widowed _____ Occupation _____

Ages of children at home _____

Earnings: Man _____ Wife _____ Children _____

Present Means of living _____

Name and Address of last Employer or Foreman _____

_____ Time there _____

How long out of work during last twelve months _____

Reference: Name and Address _____

Club or Trade Society _____ Arrears _____

Relief from Club _____ Parish _____ Other Source _____

Weekly Rent _____ Let off _____ Rent due _____

Debts _____ Pawn Tickets _____

Remarks _____

Visited by _____ Date _____

Report _____

N.B.—Visitors will, so far as possible, verify the above statements, and report especially on the state of the home and any signs of thrift.

Decision _____

* NOTE.—At the back of this form, when printed for use, is a form of receipt with spaces for "Date," "Relief Granted," and "Signature of Applicant."

[FORM B.]

INQUIRY OF EMPLOYERS.

Confidential.

OFFICE :

_____ 18

Sir,

_____ of

who has applied to this Committee for assistance, states that up to _____
 18____, he was in your employ as _____ and that h weekly wages
 were _____, that h left you on _____,
 and that the cause of h leaving was _____

Will you therefore kindly inform the Committee whether these statements
 are correct? and whether _____ was steady, regular, and did h work
 efficiently?

Your obedient servant,

REPLY OF EMPLOYER OR FOREMAN.

Date _____

Signature _____

[FORM C.]

_____ DISTRICT. No. _____

_____ RELIEF FUND.

VALUE ONE SHILLING.

FOR FOOD AND FUEL ONLY.

STAMP.

Any _____ tradesman presenting this ticket
 at _____ any _____ between _____ and
 _____ o'clock will receive cash.

(viii.) THE SOCIAL WING OF THE SALVATION ARMY.

The following particulars with regard to the operations of the social wing of the Salvation Army are partly based on statistics and other information supplied by the authorities of the Salvation Army, and partly on personal observation of the work carried on. This work cannot be adequately treated apart from a general account of the religious organisation of which it is an out-growth and with which it is closely connected. Such a review, however, would lead us far outside the scope of the present report. Many features of the social scheme do not directly concern us, *e.g.*, the cheap food depôts, the rescue homes, the match factory, and several other departments of philanthropic work. All that can be attempted here is a very brief outline of those parts of the scheme which aim at dealing specially with the problem of providing or finding work for the able-bodied unemployed. The whole of the work is still in a comparatively early stage, having first been started on a considerable scale in the year 1891.

Viewed from this standpoint the operations of the "Social Wing" may be divided into three departments more or less connected with each other: first the "national labour exchange" conducted at headquarters in connexion with the night shelters; secondly, the two workshops or "elevators" into which a certain proportion of those registered at the labour exchange are drafted, and thirdly, the farm colony in Essex on which are employed a certain number of men from the "elevator" workshops together with a few who apply direct to the farm.

In many essential respects this scheme for dealing with the unemployed will be found to differ both in conception and in practice from the policy of the societies described in the preceding chapter. Apart from the specific religious basis on which it rests, the Salvation Army scheme is highly centralised, in contrast with the Charity Organisation plan of localisation; its most important feature is the direct provision of temporary work; and the whole machinery forms a self-contained group of institutions working independently of other organisations, rather than attempting systematically to utilise or to federate existing agencies. The careful inquiry respecting applicants for assistance, which is one of the chief features in the work of the Charity Organisation Society, occupies a very subordinate place in the Salvation Army scheme, the test of work being in the main relied on to take the place both of inquiry and verification.

The social work of the Salvation Army extends to some degree to the provinces, but a description of the work in London where it is most highly developed will be sufficient for the purpose of this report.

(1.) *The National Labour Exchange.*

The National Labour Exchange consists of a central register or labour bureau at the head-quarters in Queen Victoria Street, with branches at 10 shelters and depôts in various districts of

B 250 THE SALVATION ARMY.

BRANCH No. _____

SOCIAL WING. _____

NATIONAL LABOUR EXCHANGE.Issuing Office
Stamp.

CENTRAL OFFICES,

101, Queen Victoria Street,

London, E.C.

THIS TICKET IS CURRENT FOR ONE CALENDAR MONTH ONLY
FROM DATE OF ISSUE.

LONDON BRANCHES.

272, Whitechapel Road, E.
21, West India Dock
Road, E.
61A, St. John's Square
Clerkenwell, E.C.
2, Burne Street, Edgware
Road, W.
88, Horseferry Road,
Westminster.
16, Blackfriars Road, S.E.
96, Southwark Street, S.E.
8 and 9, Stanhope Street,
Drury Lane, W.C.
119 and 121, Green Street,
Bethnal Green.
51 and 53, Royal Mint
Street, Ratcliffe High-
way, E.

We do not guarantee to find you work. Endeavour to get work yourself apart from what we may do on your behalf, as we only promise to do our best to find employment for you. Give this Ticket up at the end of a month and obtain a new one if you are still out of work. This is absolutely necessary, as your name will be taken off the Register on the expiration of this Ticket.

PROVINCIAL BRANCHES.

Peel Street, Leeds Road,
Bradford.
36, Lisbon Street, Wel-
lington Road, Leeds.
48, Castle Street, Bristol.

Name _____

Trade _____

N.B.—If *Renewal* it must be stated how often since 1st December of previous year by defacing figure in the column.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----

C 250*This part must be sent on to the Central Offices at once.***THE SALVATION ARMY.****SOCIAL WING.****NATIONAL LABOUR EXCHANGE.**

CENTRAL OFFICES,
101, Queen Victoria Street,
London, E.C.

BRANCH NO. _____

Issuing Office
Stamp.



The Officer in charge is responsible for the Registration of every man applying during the hours set apart for Registration, and for the daily despatch to the Central Offices of the particulars so taken. In the event of employers procuring men direct from your Branch, the particulars of each man must be sent, and in every case where an employer makes application to you, the separate Return provided for that purpose must be sent.

PARTICULARS OF APPLICANT.

Name _____

Address _____

Trade _____

Married or Single _____

Number of Children _____

How long Out of Work _____

References _____

Recording Officer's Name _____

Remarks _____

N.B.—If *Renewal* it must be stated how often since 1st December of previous year by defacing figure in the column.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----

London. Applicants for registration apply either at the central office, or more usually at the shelters where the form shown on this and the preceding page is filled in, the section or ticket marked B. being retained by the applicant and that marked C. being despatched to the central office. An inspection of the

form itself sufficiently indicates the method by which the bureau is worked.

Efforts have been made, but with only limited success, to induce employers to apply for men to the bureau, and the proportion placed in permanent situations is not great, only 421 being so placed in 1892 out of a total number of 10,743 registered. A considerable number, however, were provided during the same period with temporary jobs as sandwichmen, bill deliverers, writers, &c., and no fewer than 3,010 were provided with temporary work in the "elevator" workshops which are described below.

The class of persons whose names are registered at the bureau may to some extent, though incompletely, be gauged by their alleged previous occupations which are stated as follows for the year 1892 :—

Occupations.	No. of Applicants.
Agriculture - - - - -	212
Mining - - - - -	28
Building trades - - - - -	721
Engineering, iron shipbuilding, and metal trades - - - - -	810
Textile trades - - - - -	156
Printing trades - - - - -	457
Clothing trades - - - - -	291
Woodworking - - - - -	62
Food and drink preparation trades - - - - -	382
Miscellaneous skilled occupations - - - - -	626*
Seamen - - - - -	152
Railways - - - - -	16
Carmen - - - - -	138
General labourers - - - - -	3,968
Clerks and warehousemen - - - - -	1,272
Retail tradesmen - - - - -	11
Shop assistants - - - - -	258
Miscellaneous - - - - -	18
Unspecified - - - - -	1,165
Total - - - - -	10,743

Employment was found for 6,654, or about 62 per cent. of the above number, and the following table shows how these successful applicants were dealt with :—

Number passed into the Salvation Army workshops -	3,010
Number for whom permanent employment was found -	421
Number for whom temporary employment was found -	3,223
Total - - - - -	6,654

* Included in this number of men there were 57 who were registered as having been either grooms or horsekeepers, 22 as waiters, and 14 as laundrymen.

The character of the permanent and temporary employment obtained through the bureau during 1892 is shown in detail in the following table :—

Occupation.	No. of <i>Permanent</i> Places found.	No. of <i>Temporary</i> Places found.
Farm labourers - - - - -	--	2
Miner - - - - -	—	1
Building trades - - - - -	9	11
Engineering, iron, and metal trades - - - - -	9	12
Textile trades - - - - -	119	6
Printing - - - - -	—	1
Clothing - - - - -	24	2
Woodworking - - - - -	3	8
Food and drink preparation trades - - - - -	16	12
Miscellaneous skilled occupations - - - - -	10	16
Seaman - - - - -	—	1
Carmen - - - - -	6	12
General labourers - - - - -	42	91
Clerks and warehousemen - - - - -	12	—
Retail tradesmen - - - - -	18	—
Sandwichmen - - - - -	—	1,461
Bill distributors - - - - -	—	412
Writers - - - - -	—	955
Porters - - - - -	50	16
Miscellaneous - - - - -	6	112
Unspecified - - - - -	97	86
Boys - - - - -	—	6
Totals - - - - -	421	3,223

The numbers refer to the situations, not to the individuals for whom work is found. Hence, to some extent there may be duplication, especially in the figures relating to temporary employment. It will be seen that in the main the Labour Bureau discharges two functions; (1) as a feeder for the "elevator" workshops, (2) as a centre for the supply of casual labour.

(2.) *The Elevator Workshops.**

There are at present two workshops in London, at White-chapel and Battersea, where work is provided by the Salvation Army for unemployed men sent through the Labour Bureau. During 1892, 3,010 men were passed into these workshops. At the present time (September 1893) there are 268 men at work

* Everyone who passes through the Elevator must register at the Labour Bureau (City Colony). Besides the men in the Elevator workshops 52 ex-prisoners are working at wood-chopping, mat-making, shoemaking, &c. in the "Bridge" or ex-prisoners' home.

in them. The trades at which these men are engaged in the workshops are given below :—

Trade.	Elevator.		Total.
	No. 1. (Han- bury St.)	No. 2. (Wharf.)	
Sorting waste, sack making, &c.	72	49	121
Wood chopping	—	76	76
Carpentry and cabinet making	32	—	32
Other trades :—			
General work	8	—	8
Tambourine making	2	—	2
Mattress and weaving	5	—	5
Conveyance	—	12	12
Mechanical	—	9	9
Kitchen	—	5	5
Management	—	3	3
Total -	114	154	268

The following particulars with regard to the men who left the workshops during 1892 are of interest.

(a.) The birthplaces of the men were stated by them as follows :—

Birthplaces.	Number.
London	890
Other parts of England and Wales	1,582
Scotland	191
Ireland	203
Abroad	25
Total who left during 1892	2,891

(b.) The alleged previous occupations are shown below :—

Trade.	Number.
Agriculture	85*
Mining, &c.	55
Building trades	254
Engineering, iron shipbuilding, and metal trades	200
Textile trades, &c.	298
Printing trades -	100

* Of those who stated that they had been engaged in agricultural pursuits 62 described themselves as farm labourers and 23 as gardeners.

Trade.	Number.
Clothing trades - - - - -	178
Woodworking and kindred trades - - - - -	200
Food and drink preparation trades - - - - -	72*
Miscellaneous skilled occupations - - - - -	100
Seamen - - - - -	23
Railways - - - - -	4
Carmen, &c. - - - - -	202
General labourers - - - - -	580
Clerks and warehousemen - - - - -	288
Retail tradesmen, &c. - - - - -	12
Shop assistants - - - - -	102
Miscellaneous and unspecified - - - - -	138
Total who left during 1892 - - - - -	2,891

(c.) The particulars of length of stay are given below, so far as relates to those who left the workshops during 1892. No notice to leave is given or required.

Length of Stay.	Number.
Under 1 week - - - - -	964
1 week and under 1 month - - - - -	902
1 month and under 3 months - - - - -	655
3 months „ „ 6 „ - - - - -	310
6 „ „ „ 9 „ - - - - -	52
9 „ „ „ 1 year - - - - -	8
Total who left during 1892 - - - - -	2,891

The superintendent at the Whitechapel workshops (who is himself a practical cabinet-maker) states that a certain number of those who pass through his hands have already the prospect of employment secured, and want to tide over the intermediate period. A large proportion, however, of the whole number, owe their position to drink, crime, or other defects of personal qualities. A good many are old soldiers, though as a rule they do not enter this fact, but some previous or subsequent employment, on the register. The great bulk are town born and bred, in contrast with the inmates of the German labour colonies, a large proportion of whom have been rural labourers.

* Included in this number of men there were 36 who were registered as cooks, 21 as bakers, and 10 as milkmen.

As stated above, the test of work and discipline in the workshops is relied on for the purpose of sifting out those who cannot be usefully assisted.

"Every man, irrespective of condition, character or religion, is eligible for admission to the benefits of the scheme (the only limit being that of accommodation) on the single condition that he is willing to work and will obey orders."*

The conditions under which the men work in the "elevators" are thus described:—

"Every man who enters our workshops comes on the understanding that he receives only food and shelter for the first four weeks, and must, so long as he stays, if unmarried, live under our oversight at the Lighthouse—the home of the men who are on this the second round of the ladder. He is paid at first in twopenny tickets. Four of these entitle him to three full meals and a bunk at the Lighthouse. A twopenny dinner-ticket is usually good for soup, potatoes, and bread. As soon as his sectional foreman announces that his labour is worth more, he is put on "full-value tickets," viz., breakfast and supper, threepence each; dinner, fourpence; and a dormitory ticket valued at twopence, fourpence, or sixpence, according to circumstances. This last depends partly upon his deportment and cleanliness, etc."†

The "Lighthouse" referred to in the above extract is a shelter in the neighbourhood of the workshops.

The furniture and certain other articles produced are partly used by other departments of the Salvation Army. Other products are sold in the open market.

The subsequent career of those who have passed through the workshops is not clearly stated in the majority of cases; in fact, only in case of re-admissions is any complete account obtained. A large proportion leave without notice, some doubtless having obtained work, others resuming their previous "casual" existence. During 1892, 583 of them were placed in situations (not including those for whom places were obtained directly through the Labour Bureau), and, in addition to these, 416 were passed on into the farm colony described below.

The method of selection for the farm is described by the superintendent of one of the "elevators" as follows. Notice is given that a certain number are required at the farm on a given day, whereupon volunteers are asked for by the superintendents of the "elevators." Among these they select a certain number, whom they consider most likely to succeed, and from these again the authorities at the farm make a final selection.

(3.) *The Farm Colony.*

The Farm Colony for the unemployed was established in 1891 at Hadleigh, Essex, where a freehold estate has been acquired on

* "What is being done by the Darkest England Social Scheme" (Salvation Army Headquarters, 1892), p. 3.

† *Ibid.*, p. 9.

the banks of the Thames, including about 1,500 acres of land and 1,400 acres covered by the tidal waters of the Thames.

"The colony is controlled by an officer known as the Governor; and an Expenditure Board to which all matters involving expenditure are submitted, and without the authority of which no money can be expended."*

The rules and discipline of the colony are made clear by the following form of agreement and regulations:—

THE SALVATION ARMY FARM COLONY, HADLEIGH, ESSEX.

AGREEMENT BY COLONIST.

I, being by trade a _____ but being unable to find work, have been in the London Shelters of The Salvation Army for _____ and now wish to go upon the Farm Colony.

I agree to obey all the rules and regulations made for the good conduct and management of the colony, and to carry out all the instructions which may be given me by my officers there.

I promise to abstain from all intoxicating drink while resident in the colony, and I pledge myself not to enter any premises where drink is sold, and to discourage others doing so. I understand that any departure from this rule may be followed by my instant dismissal from the colony.

I understand the regulations as to grants as printed on the other side, and am willing to work for my food and shelter only for one month upon the colony, and after that time shall be satisfied with the grant allowed me (if any) by the superintendent under whom I may be placed.

Name _____

Date _____

THE SALVATION ARMY FARM COLONY.

REGULATIONS AS TO GRANTS TO COLONISTS.

1.—The colony is intended only for those who cannot obtain occupation elsewhere, and who are prepared to work, having shelter and maintenance only provided in exchange for their labour. Although wages are not therefore paid, in order to encourage good workmen, in most cases after the first month upon the colony, and in some cases before the end of the month, certain grants will be made at the discretion of the governor, upon the recommendation of the superintendent of the department in which the colonist may be engaged.

2.—If any colonist on arrival on the colony is found to have special training for a particular position, the superintendent may place him at once in such special position without waiting for the end of the period of trial.

* "Darkest England Social Scheme," p. 22.

3.—All grants or other payments are used first for the payment of clothes or articles supplied to the colonists from the date of their arrival upon the colony.

4.—If the colonist owes nothing to the colony for clothes, etc., he may draw one-third of his grant in cash, the remainder being left as a reserve fund.

5.—Each colonist will be provided with a card, which will show at the end of each week the amount of reserve to which he is entitled.

6.—For any infringement of the rules, or negligence in work, a portion or the whole of the weekly grant may be stopped by order of the governor of the colony, and for more serious misconduct a colonist may be reduced to a lower class of grant or be discharged from the colony.

7.—Should any colonist be desirous of leaving the colony, he must give at least 24 hours' notice in writing to the superintendent of his department, from whom he must obtain a discharge note on the day of his leaving the colony, stating that his work and tools are left in a satisfactory condition; and should the colonist fail to give such notice and obtain a discharge note, he shall forfeit the whole of the cash standing to his credit in the reserve fund.

Most of the colonists have passed through the "elevators" but a certain number are taken on direct at the farm. The following analysis shows the previous length of stay at the "elevators" of those who were working on the farm at the end of June 1893:—

Number who had been at the "Elevators" for under one week	-	-	-	-	1
For 1 week and less than 4 weeks	-	-	-	-	56
" 4 " " 12 "	-	-	-	-	87
" 12 " " 6 months	-	-	-	-	22
Over 6 months -	-	-	-	-	1
Total number passed through "elevators" -	-	-	-	-	167
Number taken on at the farm direct, without passing through elevator	-	-	-	-	86*
Grand total	-	-	-	-	253

Besides the cultivation of the farm and market garden, several industries are undertaken, of which the most extensive is brick-making. A wharf has been constructed at the riverside, from which a railway is being made to the brickfield, the embankment being made from London street sweepings, delivered at the wharf in barge loads. This work occupies a considerable number of colonists. A bridge has been constructed of bricks produced in the brick-field. On the whole the colonists tend to engage in the industries rather than in the cultivation of the farm, which bears out all previous experience of townsmen placed upon the land.

* Of the 86 received at the farm direct, a number had gone out to seek work and returned unsuccessful; probably a number had registered at the Labour Bureau, but of this there is no record.

A considerable number of paid labourers are employed on the farm. The exact distribution of labour in different occupations for a week during June 1893 is shown below.

Employment.	Paid labour.	Colonists.
Farm - - - -	13	13
Market garden - - - -	4	35
Nursery - - - -	1	41
Brickfields - - - -	11	106
Dust (including labour at wharf and embankments, &c.) - - - -	7	25
Sawmill - - - -	3	20
Blacksmith - - - -	1	1
Bootmaking - - - -	—	3
Bricklaying - - - -	1	1
Chairmaking - - - -	2	2
Laundry - - - -	—	4
Butcher - - - -	1	1
Baker - - - -	2	—
Warehouse - - - -	—	2
Barber - - - -	1	1
Miscellaneous (including home department, stores, hospital, refreshment room, Hadleigh Hall, &c.) - - - -	8	26
Total (excluding management) -	55	241

The previous occupations of the farm colonists who were on the farm at the end of June 1893 were stated to be as follows :—

Previous Occupations.	Number.
Agricultural - - - -	22
Mining - - - -	4
Building trades - - - -	17
Engineering, iron shipbuilding, and metal trades - - - -	7
Printing trades - - - -	6
Clothing trades - - - -	6
Woodworking trades - - - -	2
Food and drink preparation trades - - - -	12
Miscellaneous skilled occupations - - - -	14
Seamen - - - -	5
Railways - - - -	5
Carmen, &c. - - - -	6
General labourers - - - -	83
Clerks and warehousemen - - - -	11
Shop assistants - - - -	6
Miscellaneous - - - -	47
Total - - - -	253

Most of them were men in the prime of life, no fewer than 169 out of 253 being under the age of 35 when admitted. The full particulars of ages at time of admission are given below :—

Age.					Number.
Of 18 and under 25 years	-	-	-	-	76*
" 25 " " 35 "	-	-	-	-	93
" 35 " " 45 "	-	-	-	-	58
" 45 " " 55 "	-	-	-	-	23
" 55 " " 65 "	-	-	-	-	2
" 65 years and over	-	-	-	-	1
Total	-	-	-	-	253

The farm colony, like the German labour colonies, but unlike the free colonies in Holland, only admits (with rare exceptions) adult men. The greater number of those on the farm state themselves to be single, though some probably have families from whom they are separated or whom they have deserted. The fact here noted constitutes another important point of difference between the whole social scheme under review and the policy of those organisations for dealing with the unemployed, which make it a maxim to treat the family as the unit in dealing with distress. In all labour colonies this difficulty has to be faced. The policy of dealing with men apart from their families may tend to some extent to exclude cases where the greatest hardship is wrought by fluctuations in the labour market and to narrow the field of operations of the colony to the class which experience shows to be the most difficult to help effectively and permanently.

The length of stay of all the farm colonists who had passed through the farm from its opening in May 1891 up to 30th June 1893 is stated in the following table :—

Periods.					Number.
Less than 1 week	-	-	-	-	65
1 week and less than 4 weeks	-	-	-	-	124
4 weeks " " 12 "	-	-	-	-	320
12 " " " 1 year	-	-	-	-	435
1 year " " 2 years	-	-	-	-	47
Total who have left the farm	-	-	-	-	991

From this it will be seen that more than half the total number leave the farm within three months, and a small number stay over a year.

* Of this number a very small proportion were under 20 years of age.

A certain number are re-admitted from time to time. The circumstances or causes of leaving of the above 991 men are stated below :—

Causes of Leaving.						Number.
Got work of own accord, restored to friends, or situation found through help of Salvation Army						440
Left without notice						213
Dismissed for drunkenness						78
" " other misconduct						64
Left through illness						48
Emigrated						9
Other causes						145
Total						987
Died						4
						991

No definite conclusion can be drawn from this table as regards the permanent utility to the colonists of the temporary employment given on the farm. Of those who "left without notice" some probably relapsed into their former mode of life, while others doubtless obtained permanent work. It appears that about 14 per cent. were dismissed for misconduct, and 1 per cent. emigrated. The proposed establishment of an over-sea colony for emigrants has not yet become an accomplished fact.

Little has been said above respecting the religious influence which forms the basis of the whole social scheme. The effect of this influence in reforming the character of some of those dealt with is a factor not to be ignored, though it does not, of course, lend itself to any precise estimate. Apart from this it is difficult to estimate how far the temporary employment afforded by the "elevator" and the Farm has a reformatory effect.

The whole social scheme, indeed, has been at work for too short a time for any final opinion to be passed upon its results.

(ix.)—VARIOUS AGENCIES PROVIDING WORK
FOR THE UNEMPLOYED.

(a.)—THE CHURCH ARMY LABOUR HOMES.

The aim of the Church Army with regard to "Labour Homes" is to "plant these homes in the poorest and most necessitous parishes, so that selected cases of the abject and apparently hopeless, may be received, definitely influenced and trained to industry, total abstinence, and godliness."

With this object in view, it is considered desirable to deal with the unemployed in numbers small enough for personal influence to be brought to bear upon each person under control. The method adopted, therefore, is the institution of small homes, with a maximum of 25 persons in each in various localities.

The first Labour Home opened in London was established at the close of 1889, near Edgware Road. There are now six of these homes in London for men, one for women, and one for youths. Bath, Stockport, Derby, Manchester, Stafford, Oxford, Birmingham, and Bristol, have each established a labour home conducted on the same principles.

Every case, according to the rules, must be carefully investigated before being taken up; only those which after inquiry seem helpable cases are dealt with, the rest being left to the ordinary operation of the poor law. As far as possible the work is carried on in conjunction with the boards of guardians, the local committees of the Charity Organization Society, and other existing agencies.

Applicants for admission to a Labour Home, when selected sign the following agreement.

AGREEMENT.

I hereby undertake to obey cheerfully, all the rules and regulations of this Church Army Labour Home, and I enter it with the determination to make an honest endeavour to live a truly Christian life, according to the principles of the Church of England. I hereby also pledge myself to be a total abstainer, and agree to wear the blue ribbon sewn into my coat. I agree to be satisfied with the pay allotted to me, and to have any monies earned by me for out-door work paid to the captain. In the event of my leaving this home without an approved situation, or without the captain's permission, or being dismissed for breaking my total abstinence pledge, or for idleness, disobedience, insubordination, or any other breach of the rules and regulations, I agree to leave the home immediately, and to forfeit any monies placed to my credit. I undertake to do my best, after the first month, to obtain work for myself independently of all help from the Church Army, and if I stay on for a third month to be satisfied with half-pay, and if for a fourth month with no pay at all.

(Signed)

The hours of work are from 6.15 to 7.45 a.m., 9 a.m. to 1 p.m., and 2 to 6 p.m., and Saturdays from 6.15 to 7.45 a.m., and from 9 a.m. to 1 p.m.

Every inmate is expected to earn in the home the 6s. a week which is the charge fixed for his board and lodging. If, however, a man should be too weak to earn 6s., no deduction is made from future earnings on this account if he appears to be doing his best, but a man who does not earn his food and shelter is liable to be discharged at a moment's notice. The system of payment is that of piecework and anything earned above 6s. is set aside for the man's own use. Full pay is given the first two months, half pay during the third, and no pay during the fourth, as by that time it is considered that most men can obtain situations and work for themselves outside. Each man may receive 1s. per week pocket money out of his surplus earnings, and any balance is banked for the purchase of clothes, or sent towards the support of wife and children, or saved until he leaves the home.

The money thus earned in one Labour Home visited amounted on an average to 10s. 10d. for 33 persons, who during the previous six months had left the home for situations found for or by them; two had saved over 35s. in the three months during which this was possible, and five had saved from 18s. to 30s. To these savings must be added the money spent for the men on clothes before going to a situation. The highest sum earned (inclusive of 6s. for board and lodging) in any one week was 14s. 10d.; the usual earnings were 8s. to 9s.

The occupations at which the men and youths in the London Labour Homes are engaged at the present time (September 1893) are given below:—

Occupations.	Number.
Wood chopping - - - - -	94
Carpentry and cabinetmaking - - - - -	6
Jobbing work (window cleaning, &c.) - - - - -	12
Cooks - - - - -	7
Orderly and servants in labour homes - - - - -	18
Foremen of homes - - - - -	6
Paperhangers, painters, &c. - - - - -	3
Shoemaker - - - - -	1
Miscellaneous - - - - -	2
Total - - - - -	149

During 1892, 803 men were admitted to the London Labour Homes. The birth places of these men were stated by them as follows :—

Birthplaces.	Number.
London - - - - -	314
Other parts of England and Wales—	
(a.) Urban - - - - -	252
(b.) Rural - - - - -	127
(c.) Unspecified - - - - -	21
Scotland - - - - -	24
Ireland - - - - -	31
Abroad - - - - -	34
Total admitted during 1892 - - -	803

These men were admitted under the following circumstances :—

How Admitted.	Number.
Applied direct to office or homes - - -	298
Recommended by Charity Organization Society - - -	6
" local clergy or army - - -	18
" prison chaplains - - -	11
" superintendents of workhouses, casual wards, and boards of guardians - - -	284
" Church of England Temperance Society - - -	12
" Banner Street Refuge - - -	16
" Newport Market Refuge - - -	17
" visitors to common lodging houses - - -	67
" other agencies - - -	74
Total - - - - -	803

The inquiries into the antecedents of the men are in most cases carried out by two agents employed at the head-quarters at Edgware Road, who give their whole time to this branch of the work. Records are kept of these inquiries. When a man has been some time in a home, his captain is generally able to supplement the account of his history. The names of the men who ought shortly to be leaving the home are sent, with a list of the occupations they have worked at, at any time of their lives, to the Labour Bureau at the central office; and this full information makes it somewhat easier to find the men situations.

The alleged previous occupations of the men are given below :—

Trade.	Number.
Agriculture - - - - -	20
Mining - - - - -	3
Building trades - - - - -	70
Engineering, iron, shipbuilding, and metal trades - - - - -	35
Textile trades - - - - -	2
Printing trades - - - - -	17
Clothing trades - - - - -	34
Wood working (except carpenters) - - - - -	13
Food and drink preparation trades - - - - -	26
Miscellaneous skilled occupations - - - - -	67
Seamen - - - - -	35
Railways - - - - -	1
Carmen - - - - -	43
General labourers - - - - -	142
Clerks and warehousemen - - - - -	75
Retail tradesmen - - - - -	3
Shop assistants - - - - -	27
Miscellaneous - - - - -	153
Army - - - - -	2
Professional, i.e., medical, legal, &c. - - - - -	16
Unspecified - - - - -	19
Total admitted during 1892 - - - - -	803

During the first month a man is not expected to go out for the purpose of seeking a situation, but during the second and subsequent months he may obtain leave for this purpose. Any man leaving the home without an approved situation, or without permission, or being dismissed for breaking his total abstinence pledge, or for idleness, disobedience, etc., forfeits all moneys placed to his credit, and cannot be again received into any of the labour homes. At the Labour Home already referred to five men had to be dismissed for drunkenness on the August Bank Holiday, forfeiting respectively 15s. 2d., 7s., 4s. 6d., 3s., 6d. On Whit-Monday two were dismissed for the same cause, one of whom forfeited 31s. 6d. One of the men who left without permission forfeited 20s., and another forfeited 3s. 5d., but as a rule those who thus left of their own accord had, at the most, only a few pence to their credit.

The first of the next two tables shows the length of stay at the London Labour Homes of the persons who left them during 1892, and the second the circumstances or cause of leaving.

Length of Stay.	Number.
Under 1 week - - - - -	35
1 week to 4 weeks - - - - -	191
4 weeks to 12 weeks - - - - -	283
12 weeks to 16 weeks - - - - -	79
16 weeks to 1 year - - - - -	65
Over 1 year - - - - -	1
Total who left during 1892 - - -	654

Cause of Leaving.	Number.
Left without notice - - - - -	140
Situations found through Church Army - - -	255
Got work of own accord - - - - -	84
Restored to friends - - - - -	28
Dismissed for drunkenness - - - - -	52
" " other misconduct - - - - -	60
Left through illness - - - - -	10
Emigrated - - - - -	2
Other causes - - - - -	23
Total who left during 1892 - - -	654

The number of inmates who left the homes to go to situations or were restored to their friends was, therefore, 56 per cent. of the whole.

In the 283 cases in which situations were found for inmates of the London Labour Homes by the Church Army or by friends, the trades were as follows:—

Trades.	Number.
Agriculture - - - - -	6
Building trades - - - - -	17
Engineering, iron shipbuilding, and metal trades - - -	6
Printing trades - - - - -	7
Clothing trades - - - - -	7
Woodworking trades (except carpenters) - - - - -	1
Food and drink preparation trades - - - - -	5
Miscellaneous skilled occupations - - - - -	20
Seamen - - - - -	6
Railways - - - - -	4
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Trades.						Number.
Carmen, &c.	-	-	-	-	-	9
General labourers	-	-	-	-	-	22
Clerks and warehousemen	-	-	-	-	-	30
Retail tradesmen	-	-	-	-	-	2
Shop assistants	-	-	-	-	-	9
Miscellaneous	-	-	-	-	-	102
Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	25
Army and militia	-	-	-	-	-	5
Total situations found during 1892						283

(b). TRAINING FARM AT LANGLEY.

An attempt, on a small scale, to train a certain number of the unemployed in farming work with a view to emigration to Canada is being made at Bird Green Farm, Langley, Essex. The men received are selected by the Charity Organisation Society, the Self Help Emigration Society, and by the director personally, and, when possible, the societies or friends of the men contribute a small sum weekly towards their keep.

An experienced manager has been engaged, and provision has been made for accommodating eight men at a time at the farm house.

The applicants are required to walk to the farm from London a distance of 45 miles, and to work under the direction of the manager without wages. They are fed and lodged in the farm house in which the manager and his wife also live, and a strict discipline is maintained.

No skilled labour beyond that of the manager is employed, the whole of the work being done by the men who remain on the farm for an average of about six to eight weeks. Each man when sufficiently trained in the use of farm tools is found a situation in Canada, to which the whole or part of his fare is paid by the Self Help Society.

A summary of 72 cases accepted for the farm between May 1891 and June 1893 shows that—

- 6 who were sent never arrived at the farm.
- 12 left through laziness, bad conduct, or for other reasons.
- 5 found employment in England.
- 39 were sent to Canadian farms.
- 1 was sent to New Zealand.
- 9 were still at the farm.

Of the men sent to the Colonies it is stated that only three have since been reported as unsatisfactory.

A full record is kept of the career of each man dealt with. The whole experiment is being carefully conducted, but belongs less to the class of agencies for providing work for the unemployed than to that of emigration agencies, with which this report is not primarily concerned.

(c.)—HOME COLONIZATION SOCIETY.

The experiment of the Home Colonization Society in Westmoreland is as yet at too early a stage in its working for any final judgment on its progress to be possible. As, however, it is the most direct attempt to establish in England a labour colony by voluntary effort on somewhat similar lines to those adopted in Holland, this Report would be incomplete without some reference to it.

The object of the society is to provide work in English "Industrial villages" for the able-bodied poor.

The proposal as described in 1888 by the present director of the colony was to plant a body of able-bodied unemployed men and women in some rural district and hand over to them some 300 or 400 acres to enable them to supply their own wants by their own work. They were to make one another's bread, weave one another's clothes, consume one another's produce, and thus avoid buying in an outside market. A home, food, education and medicine were to be offered in return for obedient service. Part of the land was to be put aside and its produce sold in the ordinary markets to defray the expenses of management. The sales of surplus produce and purchases in the open market were to be confined to articles now imported into England from abroad.

With these aims in view four acres of land were purchased in April 1892, another acre in the following July, and 126 acres in November. The society has therefore been less than a year in possession of enough land for a small colony, and criticism of the results would therefore be obviously out of place. There are at present 22 persons in the colony. Operations were begun with two colonists and there have been as many as 30. The average number has been 15 persons, who are stated by the Hon. Director to have been maintained at a total cost, from the commencement to 15 May 1893, of 385*l.* 9*s.* 6*d.*, or about 10*s.* per week each, exclusive of cases where shelter and food have been given to tramps for work done. The labour of the colonists has been supplemented by the services of one or two skilled agriculturists, at different times, for the initiation of the unskilled, at the cost of 26*l.* 18*s.* 2*d.* The colony is, so far as possible, self-contained.

The society, as its name implies, aims at the permanent settlement of the colonists on the land and not at drafting them off to ordinary farms, but it must necessarily take time for the casual colonist to be replaced by those caring to stay permanently. Up to the present time (September 1893) 52 persons

have passed through the colony, of whom 22 are now resident. Of these 22 colonists—

9 came 15 months ago.				
1	"	8	"	"
3	"	5	"	"
1	"	4	"	"
5	"	2	"	"
3	"	less than 2 months ago.		

Of the 22 colonists now resident 11 are men, 5 are women, and 6 are children, two families having settled on the farm. Of the women one was a milliner, one a domestic servant, one a farm servant, one a dressmaker, and the fifth is a farmer's daughter.

The previous occupations of the 11 men were as follows:—

- (1.) Sawyer; afterwards Prudential Assurance Agent.
- (2.) Farmer.
- (3.) Farm labourer.
- (4.) Ironworker.
- (5.) and (6.) Clerks.
- (7.) Pork butcher.
- (8.) Woollen weaver.
- (9.) Railway servant; afterwards ironworker.
- (10.) Woollen spinner; afterwards labourer.
- (11.) Errand boy; then labourer.

The progress of the colony has been seriously impeded during its first year by internal dissensions turning chiefly on the mode of government of the village. Some of the first colonists appear not to have belonged to the ordinary unemployed class, but to have been attracted to the colony by the expectation of taking part in a communal experiment. As a consequence of these difficulties and misunderstandings 14 members were expelled from the Colony.

NOTE.—Recently another project for farm Colonies has been set on foot by an Association called the "English Land Colonization Society," but no Colony has actually been started.

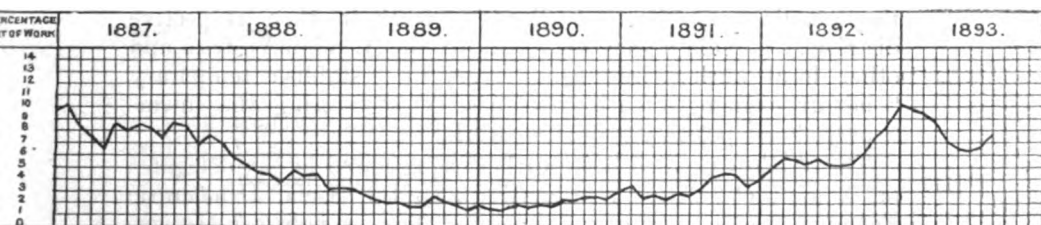
**PART III.—TEMPORARY SCHEMES FOR THE RELIEF
OF THE UNEMPLOYED (1892-93).**

(i.)—INTRODUCTORY.

During the year 1892, the period of trade prosperity which had set in during 1888 and had culminated in 1890 came to an end, and was succeeded by depression. The rapidity of the change may be gathered from the fact that the percentage of unemployed members of the trade societies which make monthly returns to the Board of Trade (and which in 1892 included the chief unions connected with engineering, iron and shipbuilding, together with some important societies connected with the building and other groups of trades) rose from 4·3 at the end of December 1891 to 10·2 at the end of December 1892. The greater part of the rise took place in the autumn months, the proportion of unemployed at the end of each month being as follows :—

July	-	-	5·9	per cent.
August	-	-	5·0	"
September	-	-	6·2	"
October	-	-	7·3	"
November	-	-	8·2	"
December	-	-	10·2	"

The course of the depression is still more clearly brought out by the following diagram, showing the percentage of persons out of work at the end of each month from 1887 to 1893, in the Trade Unions which make monthly returns to the Board of Trade.



(Each division in the above diagram indicates one month.)

It is to be observed that the unions making these returns are largely connected with trades such as engineering and shipbuilding, which are especially sensitive to slight changes in the condition of industry. While therefore changes in their proportions of unemployed are, for this reason, a very useful index of changes in industry as a whole, they probably represent such changes in a considerably exaggerated form; and it is not to be supposed that the *total* number of unemployed persons in the Kingdom changed within 12 months in the proportion of 4 to 10.

It is also to be noted that all or nearly all of the actual persons reported by the unions as "unemployed," were supported by out-of-work benefit, and consequently not in distress. Nevertheless, the prosperity or depression of these staple trades involves that of so many others, that it was anticipated early in the autumn that there was likely to be an increase of distress due to scarcity of employment during the winter, and movements were started in many large centres, for coping with such distress, or for inducing local authorities to take measures for the purpose.

Thus, on September 22nd, at a delegate meeting of the London Trades' Council, it was resolved "to communicate with the " societies affiliated to the Trades' Council, the South Side " Labour Protection League, the Shipping Trades' Federation, " the Poplar Labour Electoral Committee, and other *bonâ fide* " labour organisations to obtain if possible, approximately, the " number of unemployed in London," with a view to taking action to secure the provision of "some useful employment for " the thousands of men at present unemployed, and whose " number will be largely augmented as the winter is advanced."

Nearly a thousand inquiry forms were accordingly issued to London labour organisations and others, asking "for the occupations and number of workpeople who—through no fault of their " own—were known to the person receiving the paper, and " attested by a witness, to be partly or wholly unemployed." As a result, only 56 forms were returned, and the information therein contained is described as "of no practical value."

Having failed to obtain accurate information in this manner the Trades' Council communicated with the Local Government Board urging them to take measures to ascertain the amount of the prevailing destitution owing to want of employment, and to issue a circular to local authorities suggesting that they should press forward all useful work in their respective districts. Circulars were also sent to the London Vestries and other local authorities urging them to "establish temporary " labour exchanges, with the object of registering the unemployed and possibly providing work."

The Trades' Council was further represented by six delegates on a joint committee representing also the Social Democratic Federation, and many other working class or political associations which was formed originally in the early autumn in order to obtain the right of public meeting in Trafalgar Square, and which, after this matter had been settled, was made permanent under the altered title of the "Unemployed Organisation Committee," in order to conduct an agitation for the employment by local authorities of men out of work.

This Committee promoted a series of meetings of unemployed on Tower Hill, and organised deputations to several Departments of Government. Deputations of men stated to be out of work in different districts of London also waited on the local authorities asking for employment.

On November 14th, 1892, the circular to local authorities quoted on pp. 185-187 was issued by the Local Government Board.

Besides the action taken by various London vestries and by the Office of Works described on pp. 188 and 213, and the work of the Mansion House Conference also described on pp. 238-263, a number of temporary organisations came into existence in London to deal specially with out-of-work cases, but as the only measures taken were, as a rule, the offer of relief in money or kind, after inquiries of a more or less careful character, a detailed description of their work is for the most part unnecessary in this report.

In Poplar, Stepney, St. George's-in-the-East, Hoxton, Newington, and Camberwell there were temporary committees connected with a central organisation entitled the "Clearing House for the Unemployed." The local committees were composed partly or wholly of men stated to be themselves unemployed, presided over by the local clergyman or some other responsible chairman. The unemployed committee-men were utilised at a rate of pay varying from 10s. a week to 6d. an hour or 25s. a week, to make inquiries as to the applicants, who, if found eligible, were relieved in kind on a certain scale laid down by the central organisation, varying with the size of the family.

The inquiries instituted were not of a very elaborate kind; and difficulty arising from overlapping was felt in some districts. Married men under 55 with families were preferred for relief. The funds were provided partly by grants from the central organisation, and partly by local subscriptions.

The total sum distributed by the Central Clearing House through the six local committees named, was about 722*l.*, to which the amount raised by local subscriptions must be added. The "Clearing House" Committee also distributed about an equal sum through various existing organisations, *e.g.*, the Charity Organisation Society.

As regards the provinces it is not necessary in this report to describe in detail the movement which took place in various large centres of population in order to induce local authorities to make the provision of work for the unemployed which is described below. There were, however, a few centres, such as Leeds and Liverpool, where, owing to special circumstances, the "unemployed" agitation attracted a special amount of public attention.

In Leeds the depression in the iron trade was especially acute, and a considerable increase in want of employment took place during the autumn and winter. A series of meetings were held in the Town Hall Square, demanding work, before the Corporation undertook the extensive relief works described on pp. 222-228. After the close of these works on April 26, the

meetings were resumed by those who had thus been deprived of employment and a "labour bureau" was formed as described on p. 225.

In Liverpool there is a regular recurrence of distress owing to want of employment in the winter months, caused by the stagnation of various branches of dock and riverside labour. In consequence of the depression in the shipping trade this seasonal distress is said to have been more acute than usual during last winter, and in the early spring it was intensified by the want of employment among cotton porters and others, due to the prolonged dispute in the Lancashire cotton trade. The large proportion of ordinary Liverpool distress which is attributable to the fluctuations and conditions of riverside employment is illustrated by the figures published by the Liverpool Central Relief and Charity Organisation Society, from which it appears that in the year 1891-2 out of 10,047 applicants 2,025 were dock labourers, 1,691 cotton and general labourers, 751 seamen, and 497 connected with shipbuilding trades.

Early in the present year a series of meetings of the "unemployed" were held, resulting in the formation of an "Association of the Unemployed," which opened a bureau in Hunter Street with the aid of private subscriptions, and registered 3,774 names of men who represented themselves to be unemployed. Of these about 2.9 per cent. only were skilled men. The association, however, was unable to find work for more than about 80 of the total number until the Corporation undertook the relief works in Pall Mall, contracting with the association for the supply of labour.

A large number of cases, however, were relieved between February and May by the Liverpool Central Relief and Charity Organisation Society. Meanwhile another bureau entitled the "Central Labour Bureau" was started under private management in Great George Street, at which over 2,100 names were registered, a small charge being made for registration. Of these men, some 30 or 40 were sent to work in Cornwall under a railway contractor, but with this exception the Bureau seems to have provided little employment for its members, and is now closed. The Liverpool Trades' Council took no part in the work of organising the unemployed, some of its members holding that "unemployed demonstrations" tend, by magnifying the apparent extent of want of employment, to induce employers to reduce wages.

Movements of a somewhat similar kind to those described above, though as a rule on a smaller scale, took place in other centres, resulting in some places in schemes of relief which are described in other sections of the report.

(ii.) THE PROVISION OF WORK FOR THE UNEMPLOYED BY MUNICIPAL AND OTHER AUTHORITIES.

The following circular was issued by the Local Government Board in November 1892, to Local Authorities and Boards of Guardians in England and Wales :—

Local Government Board, Whitehall, S.W.,

SIR,

November 14, 1892.

FROM information which the Local Government Board have received, it appears that there is at the present time a considerable amount of distress in different parts of the country occasioned by scarcity of employment, and it is probable that this condition of things may become more general, and be intensified in the course of the coming winter.

In the spring of 1886 the Local Government Board issued a circular letter to local authorities indicating the course which might with advantage be adopted for the provision of employment for the unemployed of the class who do not ordinarily seek poor law relief.

The following extracts from that circular appear to me to deserve the immediate and careful consideration of the local authorities both in the metropolis and elsewhere :—

“The Local Government Board are convinced that in the ranks of those who do not ordinarily seek parish relief there is evidence of much and increased privation, and if the depression in trade continues, it is to be feared that large numbers of persons usually in regular employment will be reduced to the greatest straits.

“The spirit of independence which leads so many of the working classes to make great personal sacrifices rather than incur the stigma of pauperism, is one which deserves the greatest sympathy and respect, and which it is the duty and interest of the community to maintain by all the means at its disposal.

“Any relaxation of the general rule at present obtaining, which requires, as a condition of relief to able-bodied male persons, on the ground of their being out of employment, the acceptance of an order for admission to the workhouse, or the performance of an adequate task of work as a labour test, would be most disastrous, as tending directly to restore the condition of things which, before the reform of the poor laws, destroyed the independence of the labouring classes, and increased the poor rate until it became an almost insupportable burden.

“It is not desirable that the working classes should be familiarised with poor law relief, and if once the honourable sentiment which now leads them to avoid it is broken down, it is probable that recourse will be had to this provision on the slightest occasion.

“The Local Government Board have no doubt that the powers which the Guardians possess are fully sufficient to enable them to deal with ordinary pauperism, and to meet the demand for relief from the classes who usually seek it.

"What is required in the endeavour to relieve artisans and others who have hitherto avoided poor law assistance, and who are temporarily deprived of employment, is:—

- "1. Work which will not involve the stigma of pauperism ;
- "2. Work which all can perform, whatever may have been their previous avocations ;
- "3. Work which does not compete with that of other labourers at present in employment ; and
- "Lastly, work which is not likely to interfere with the resumption of regular employment in their own trades by those who seek it.

"The Board have no power to enforce the adoption of any particular proposals, and the object of this circular is to bring the subject generally under the notice of boards of guardians and other local authorities.

"In districts in which exceptional distress prevails, the Board recommend that the guardians should confer with the local authorities, and endeavour to arrange with the latter for the execution of works on which unskilled labour may be immediately employed.

"These works may be of the following kinds, among others :—

- "(a.) Spade husbandry on sewage farms.
- "(b.) Laying out of open spaces, recreation grounds, new cemeteries, or disused burial grounds.
- "(c.) Cleansing of streets not usually undertaken by local authorities.
- "(d.) Laying out and paving of new streets, &c.
- "(e.) Paving of unpaved streets, and making of footpaths in country roads.
- "(f.) Providing or extending sewerage works and works of water supply.

"In all cases in which special works are undertaken to meet exceptional distress, it would appear to be necessary, first, that the men employed should be engaged on the recommendation of the guardians as persons whom, owing to previous condition and circumstances, it is undesirable to send to the workhouse, or to treat as subjects for pauper relief ; and second, that the wages paid should be something less than the wages ordinarily paid for similar work, in order to prevent imposture, and to leave the strongest temptation to those who avail themselves of this opportunity to return as soon as possible to their previous occupations.

"When the works are of such a character that the expense may properly be defrayed out of borrowed moneys, the local authorities may rely that there will be every desire on the part of the Board to deal promptly with the application for their sanction to a loan."

I would urge on the local authorities, on whom devolves the duty of carrying out the works required for their districts, that the execution of such works should, whenever practicable, be commenced at an early date, so that employment may be given during the winter months when work is the more needed, rather than later in the coming year.

I would at the same time emphasize the great importance which I attach to the co-operation of boards of guardians with local authorities, in order that the pauperisation of those persons whose difficulties are occasioned only by exceptional circumstances arising from temporary scarcity of employment, and who are unwilling to become dependent on poor law relief, may as far as practicable, be avoided.

In the case of the metropolis, some of the classes of employment suggested above are not practicable, but, apart from the execution of new works it will probably be found that in the performance of the

ordinary routine duties of the sanitary authority occasions will arise when surplus labour may be profitably utilised.

I shall be obliged if this letter is brought under the consideration of the authority at once, and it will be satisfactory to me to be kept informed of the state of affairs in your district, and to learn the results of any efforts which may be made in the direction suggested.

I am, Sir,

Your obedient Servant,

The Clerk to the Guardians,
or Sanitary Authority.

HENRY H. FOWLER.

It had been thought desirable for the purposes of this Report to obtain particulars with regard to the action taken by local authorities in consequence of the receipt of the above circular. Accordingly on March 27th, 1893, the Local Government Board issued a second circular, inquiring, on behalf of the Labour Department of the Board of Trade, as to the measures taken by local authorities for the relief of the unemployed during the past winter.

Answers to this circular were received from 673 local authorities, showing that 73 had taken some action in the matter referred to. Further inquiries have been addressed to the more important of those local authorities which have taken action. Communications have also been addressed to the chief Scottish local authorities on behalf of the Labour Department by the Scottish Office, and to those in Ireland by the Irish Local Government Board.

The result of these and other inquiries is summarised in the table on the next and following pages, which states, for each district from which particulars have been supplied, the name of the local authority undertaking the work, the class of work provided, the length of time during which it was in progress, the rate of pay given, the number of hours per day worked, the number of days per week during which the same individuals were employed, and the total number and the daily average number of persons employed. Some remarks are added, where possible, with regard to the cost of the schemes, the efficiency of the work performed, or other matters bearing on the success of the undertakings, based for the most part on information supplied by the local authorities concerned. It should be stated that of the remaining 600 local authorities which have replied, but have undertaken no special relief work, 527 state that during last winter there was no exceptional distress or want of employment in their districts; 19 that distress was observable, while 54 ignored the question of distress. The tables giving these particulars are followed by an analysis of the occupations of the persons registered by certain of the local authorities for the purpose of employment.

MUNICIPAL RELIEF WORKS.

TABLE showing PARTICULARS of WORK provided during the WINTER (1892-3) for the purpose of relieving the unemployed, by the under-mentioned Local Authorities in the United Kingdom.

LONDON.

Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number of Men employed.	Remarks.
Paddington Vestry	Painting water vans	10 weeks (3rd Feb. to 14th April).	Foremen. 7d. per hour. Labourers. 6d. per hour.	10	54	5	5	Register kept, and employment given when men are wanted, preference being given to residents in parish. " Work very satisfactory.
St. Mary Abbots' Kensington Vestry.	Stone-breaking. Cleansing.	19th Dec. to 28th Feb.	3d. per cwt.	8	—	—	—	Registry opened. Work unsatisfactory in quality, and stonebreaking cost 3s. 4d. per ton more than if done by skilled labour.
Fulham Vestry	Laying out park Scavenging and clearing away snow.	8 months - When required.	64d. per hour 6d. per hour -	9 9	6 —	100 1,012	— —	29s. spent in wages. First comers were employed, and at end of three days' work each man received ticket entitling him to employment when a vacancy occurred. Men employed clearing snow were given one day's work each, at a cost of 18s. Those working at the park were selected, and were employed constantly; men idling were discharged.

LONDON—cont.

Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number of Men employed.	Remarks.
Hammermith Vestry	Street cleansing	• About 5 weeks (Dec. 13 to Jan. 18).	3s. 5d. per day	9	3	1,351	50	Amount expended was 290 <i>l</i> . Road making by a contractor was also expedited with a view to finding employment for unemployed.
St. George's, Hanover Square, W., Vestry.	Road repairing and sewer- ing work.	Until end of April, but 30 men are <i>still</i> at work.	4 <i>d</i> . and 5 <i>d</i> . per hour.	9½	6	—	40	Surveyor is of opinion that the result has been simply to benefit the men employed, at an increased expenditure of 2,000 <i>l</i> . over the annual estimates for labour and materials.
St. Margaret and St. John Vestry.	Road cleansing	—	—	—	—	—	—	Applicants for work had to be recommended by the relieving officers. 140 <i>l</i> . expended in wages, and 290 <i>l</i> . voted for establishing and carrying on Labour Bureau for one year.
St. Martin-in-the-Fields Vestry.	"	9 weeks	3s. 2 <i>d</i> . per day 1s. 7 <i>d</i> . per ½ day.	10 5	4 6	—	25	A Labour Bureau opened, but was a failure, none of the men obtaining employment. 101 <i>l</i> . expended in work.
St. Mary-above Vestry	Road repairing, sewer- ing, and sweeping, stone- breaking.	15 weeks (16th Dec. to 24th March).	—	—	—	—	—	A weekly average of 108 men were employed. Total wages paid 1,368 <i>l</i> . 4 <i>s</i> . 11 <i>d</i> . A Labour Bureau was opened, but in 3 months found employment for three persons only at a cost of 38 <i>s</i> .

LONDON—cont.

Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number of Men employed.	Remarks.
Hamptonstead Vestry	Stonebreaking	13th Jan. to 11th March.	4d. per hour.	8	Single men, 4.	20	12	Men employed on recommendation of relieving officer: as a rule the men worked well except the snow sweepers, who were idle, incapable of hard work, and not amenable to discipline. Many belonged to the class of "permanent unemployed."
	Painting	24th Jan. to 11th March.	5d. " "	9 to 10	Married men, 6.	7	5	
	Snow sweeping	10 days.	5d. " "	9		500	206	
St. Pancras Vestry	Road sweeping	1 month	3s. 6d. per day	8	3	400	33	Work was inferior as compared with that done by ordinary labourers.
Hackney Board of Works.	Stone-breaking		3s. 6d. cubic yard, afterwards 4s.					Amount paid in wages, 1,043l. Carpenters struck first day for trade union rate of pay.
	Painters		3s. 8d. per day.	9	3	1,000	90	Labour Bureau opened, very few obtained employment, except those employed by the vestry.
	Carpenters		8d. per hour.					
Clerkenwell Vestry	Street cleansing	—	3s. 6d. per day	—	—	60	—	Registry opened, but only 160 entered.
	Road repairing and stone-breaking.	28th Nov. to 8th March.	4½d. per hour	7½	3	300	29	Registry opened, and inquiries made as to bona fides of applicants. Total amount paid in wages, 429l. 16s. 1d. The experiment was deemed eminently successful.

LONDON—cont.

Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number of Men employed.	Remarks.
Rethnal Green Vestry	Street cleansing and sewer- ing.	19th Dec. to 4th March.	6d. per hour	—	3	733	13	Registry opened, 219d., paid in wages on relief works.
Whitechapel Board of Works.	Street cleansing .	2nd Nov. to 31st Mar.	3s. 8d. per day	10	3	160	25	Employed on recommendation of relieving officer and clergymen.
Mile End Old Town Vestry.	Street sweeping and road repairing.	12th Nov. to 17th Feb.	6d. per hour	Nominally 7	3	989	50	Registered and summoned by post card. In the event of those summoned not applying, outsiders were put on.
Stepney Board of Works.	Street cleansing .	—	23s. per week	—	—	8 or 9	—	Registry kept.
Poplar Local Board .	Road cleansing and re- pairing.	17th Nov. to 24th Dec.	4s. a day	10	3	—	73	Registry kept, and as many as possible employed.
Limehouse Board of Works.	Road sweeping .	26th Nov. to 3rd Mar.	3s. 10d. per day	9½	1 to 6	735	9	—
St. George's, South- wark Vestry.	Road cleansing .	9 weeks (Dec. 7th to Feb. 4th).	6d. per hour	9	3 to 3	—	—	—
Rotherhithe Vestry .	Road making, stone-break- ing, and street cleansing.	—	—	—	—	—	—	Register was opened and men taken from it in turn, as employment was found. 596d. expended.

LONDON—cont.

Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number of Men employed.	Remarks.
Camberwell Vestry	Painting railings, cleaning and painting Vestry Hall, road-sweeping, and snow removing.	19th Nov. to 19th May.	Painters, 8d. per hour; scaffolders, 7d.; road sweepers, 6d.; others, 5d.	8 to 9	6, except road sweepers and snow removers 2 days only.	2,346	50	The work, being executed in the depth of winter, was considered fair.
Lambeth Vestry	Road sweeping	About 7 weeks	4s. per day	10	—	1,550	37	Registry was opened, and the men registered were employed by the surveyor. A large number of the men were of the ordinary "loading" class.
St. Mary Newington Vestry.	Road cleansing and repaving.	15 weeks	6d. per hour	8	3	239	50	Registry kept, and employment confined to parishioners, but it was found that residents in adjoining parishes removed into this in order to obtain employment. Result not satisfactory.
Wandsworth Board of Works.	Making and repairing roads.	14 weeks	3s. 4d. and 4s. per day according to capacity.	9	3	50	10	851l. was expended.
Woolwich Board of Works.	Street cleansing and repaving.	—	3s.	9	3	—	—	—
Plumstead Board of Works.	Road sweeping; few on paving and drainage works.	Dec. to Mar.	22s. to 24s. per week.	—	—	180	—	A Register opened.

LONDON—cont.

Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number of Men employed.	Remarks.
Charlton Board of Works.	—	—	6d. per hour	—	—	—	—	A Register opened.
Ealing Local Board	Road making and drainage works in new recreation ground.	About 5 weeks	3s. 6d. per day	—	—	14*	—	* Three of these men were at work five weeks, the remainder from 14 to 54 days each. 30 men in addition were employed one day each snow clearing at 3s. for the day.
West Ham Corporation	Excavating, forming banks, and levelling. Snow-sweeping and scavenging.	72 days "During bad weather."	6d. per hour	6	6	540 "A considerable number."	45	Two registries kept in parish. Total amount expended, 700l. Men were changed daily for a time, but as pressure became less men were kept on for two days at a time.
Finchley Local Board	Street improvements	—	5d. per hour	—	—	—	—	Some unemployed were offered work at 5d. per hour, but declined it on ground that their ordinary wage was 6d.
Edmonton Local Board.	Road and ditch clearing. Sewage farm work.	—	—	—	—	106	—	Register kept by engineer, and employment given. Work well done, but required extra supervision. Men "stuck to it" better than in previous years.
Hendon Local Board	Clearing roads	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

OTHER DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES.

County and Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number employed.	Remarks.
Berwick - on - Tweed Corporation.	Levelling ground.	4 weeks	2s. per day	8	6	78	24	Cost about 75/. Men in greatest distress were kept on regularly. A few men would not work and tried to prevent others doing so.
NORTHUMBRELAND. Newcastle - on - Tyne Corporation.	Tree planting, fencing and trenching.	32 weeks	} 3s. per day	9	5½	450	150	—
	Tree planting, fencing and trenching. Scavenging	Part still in progress. 16 weeks						
Walker Local Board (Tynemouth.)	Laying out park and pleasure grounds.	11 weeks	4½d. per hour	9	3	457	21	Chiefly spade work. A succession of men were selected by a committee appointed partly by the Board and partly by a public meeting. A labour registry was opened and was used mainly as a means of selecting men for the relief work. It was found that the men heard of work through their trade unions and at the gates of the works and that a Registry was not of much use, and it was therefore closed.
DURHAM. South Shields Corporation.	Levelling ballast hill	From 20th March. Still in progress.	Married men, 2s. 6d. Single men, 2s.	8	2	210	60 to 70	—

OTHER DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES—*cont.*

County and Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number employed.	Remarks.
DURHAM—<i>cont.</i>								
Consett Local Board.	Sewage farm . . .	7 weeks	41d. per hour	8	1	35	6	Some men worked only half a day per week.
Willington Quay Local Board.	Removing ballast heap	4 months	15s. per week.	8	6	464	29	The ballast removed was used to fill a hollow on some private land between the main street and the road to the railway station. The corporation contributed 300 <i>l.</i> towards 400 <i>l.</i> expended. The site cleared is owned by the corporation and it is expected that the work will make both sites eligible for building and that the corporation will gain by the increase in the rateable property erected.
West Hartlepool Corporation.	Stone-breaking . . .	11 weeks	2s. 8d. per cubic yard.	9	6 days in alternate weeks.	100	40	If a man's earnings reached a certain sum before his week expired, he was stopped for the remainder of the week.
Hartlepool Corporation	Road repairing . . . Stone-breaking . . .	15th March to 19th April.	3s. per day, 2s. 8d. per cubic yard.	9	3	150	38 to 40	—
WESTMORELAND.								
Bowness Local Board	Stone-breaking and road repairing.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

OTHER DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES—*cont.*

County and Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number employed.	Remarks.
WESTMORELAND—<i>cont.</i> Kendal Union	Work on Kendal Fell	7 weeks from 12th Dec.	Single men, 10d. per day. Married men, 1s. per day and 3d. per day for each child under 14 years and dependent.	7 to 8	6	182	81	The men were employed continuously. In some cases the men left to seek for other work, and if unsuccessful returned to work at the Fell. For the first fortnight the pay to married men was 10d. per day and 2d. per day for each child under 14 years of age and dependent on him.
YORKSHIRE. Baildon Local Board.	Street improvements, sewerage, &c.	2 years	16s. 6d. to 20s. per week.	9	5½	50	28	During the past winter 18 to 20 extra men were employed. Many of the poorer ratepayers are allowed to work for the Board and to leave a few shillings weekly in payment of rates. The Board has for several years carried out public works under the supervision of its own foremen, mainly in order to provide work for the unemployed.
Beverley Corporation	Street cleansing Stone-breaking	13 weeks (22nd Dec. to 23rd March.)	2s. 6d. per day 2s. 3d. per ton.	—	—	37	8	A Register was opened and applicants as far as possible employed. The total expenditure was 88l. 6s. 8d.

OTHER DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES—cont.

County and Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number employed.	Remarks.
YORKSHIRE—cont.								
Bradford Corporation	Street cleansing	—	Ordinary rate	9	2 to 3	Upwards of 500.	—	A registry was opened in charge of the Rate Collector. A large number of applicants were employed road sweeping by the Surveyor. A sum of 138 <i>l.</i> was subscribed through various persons and distributed through the Registry. This had the effect of largely increasing the number of applicants. None of the men obtained employment through the registry except at road sweeping.
Dewsbury Corporation	Laying out new streets and park. Clearing away snow	— When necessary	— —	— —	— —	90 150	— —	— —
Hull Corporation	Road making, paving, and fencing. Stone-breaking	13 weeks During winter	{ —	8 to 9 8½ to 9½	{ 5½ 6	140 50 to 60	102 50 to 60	A Registry was opened and a large number of men registered, mainly of the casual dockers and navy class.
Pudsey Local Board	Constructing sewer	12 weeks	4 <i>d.</i> to 6 <i>d.</i>	8	2 to 4*	71	27	* "Some worked full time." "Cost much more than if done in ordinary way by contract."
Leeds Corporation	Laying out parks, digging, &c.	14 weeks (15th Dec. to 26th April.)	5 <i>d.</i> per hour	9	3	1,103	—	An average of about 60 days' work was given to each man; men were entered in a register and enquiry was made as to their character.

OTHER DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES—contd..

County and Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number employed.	Remarks.
YORKSHIRE—cont. Sheffield Corporation	Road making, sewerage and excavating.	17 weeks (14th Dec. to 8th April).	Labourers 4d. and 5d. per hour.	7½ to 9½	4 to 5½	612	229	A registry was opened, but result was not satisfactory. A great number of applicants were of the class that is chronically out of work. Total cost of relief work was £207l.
	Stone-breaking		Slagstone 3s. 1d. per ton; lime-stone, 1s. 5d. per ton.					
LANCASHIRE. Bootle Corporation	Laying out new park, and road improvements.	20th April to August, and still in progress.	Labourers 3s. to 3s. 10d. a day, bricklayers, 8yd. per hour.	10	5½	115	115	The men continue to work so long as satisfaction is given.
	Cleaning out river bed	3 weeks (in Jan.)	5d. per hour	7½	2 to 5	130	30 to 40	Applicants for work were examined in presence of the relieving officers, the corporation inspector, and the town missionaries. If satisfactory, names were put on register and work given in turn when available.
Gorton Local Board	Brook course straightened, a road cindered and snow clearing.	10 weeks	3s. 10d. per day	9	6	—	6	—
Heywood Corporation	Road work	7 weeks	5d. per hour	9	3 to 6*	50	40	* 20 men worked 6 days a week for 4 weeks. 30 men worked 3 days a week for 3 weeks.

OTHER DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES—*cont.*

County and Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number employed.	Remarks.
LANCASHIRE— <i>cont.</i>								
Liverpool Corporation	Excavating and cleaning site.	About 7 weeks	8d. per cubic yard; piece-work.	9	6	450	60	Work let to representatives of the unemployed. Total earnings of whole of the men were divided equally at end of each week. Total amount so divided was about 400l. Cost more than if done under ordinary conditions.
Manchester Corporation	Cleaning streets, road-making, and excavating. Clearing away snow	4½ weeks About 3½ days	— 4d. per hour	6 —	8 —	60 —	— 1,370	Superintendent is of opinion that men did not earn <i>half</i> their wages, and were generally of "loading" class, not accustomed to continuous labour.
Rochdale Corporation	Recreation ground and road-making.	18th Jan. Still in progress.	4d. per hour	To 22nd March, 8; now 9.	6	132. Now reduced to 9.	80	Results as satisfactory as could be expected from that class of men. The cost for the period, 4th January to 25th March, was 476l.
St. Helen's Corporation	Laying out park Work in gas yard Laying water mains	12 weeks 3 weeks Still in progress	2s. 6d. per day 2s. 6d. per day 3s. per day	10 9 and 10 10	6 6 5½	63 12 50	33 — 26	Work was not as satisfactory as it should have been, owing to the character of the men employed.
Widnes Corporation	Sewering of new streets	5 months	3s. to 4s. per day	9	4	85	50	Each applicant had to bring recommendation from a town councillor certifying that he required employment. Work cost 10 per cent. more than if done under ordinary circumstances. The men <i>could not</i> compete with ordinary labour.

OTHER DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES—*cont.*

County and Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number employed.	Remarks.
CHESHIRE.								
Borough of Hyde Corporation.	New cemetery laid out	Commenced in March, still in progress.	16s. to 20s. per week.	10 hours, except Mondays & Saturdays	6	108	For 9 weeks 100; now 30.	—
Winsford Local Board	Digging and gardening	Feb. and March	2s. 10d. per day	9	6	11	4 or 5	Local trade unionists objected to rate of wages paid, and only a few men applied. A public fund was opened to pay wages. The public were invited to employ labour at a low price, the difference between the price paid and the wages paid to men to be made up out of the fund.
STAFFORDSHIRE.								
Hanley Corporation	Road-making	6 months, and will probably last another 6 months.	4d. per hour	9	6	300	60	Work more costly than if done under ordinary circumstances.
Wolverhampton	Cleansing roads, ditches, &c.	17 days (Jan. 4th to 20th).	3s. per day	10	Married men, 2. Single men, 1.	628	138	Private Relief Committee opened Labour Bureau and raised a fund to pay wages. The men were employed under supervision of Corporation surveyor in work which would otherwise not have been done. The work was considered more satisfactory than is usual with relief labour.

OTHER DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES—*cont.*

County and Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number employed.	Remarks.
STAFFORDSHIRE— <i>cont.</i> Walsall Corporation.	Laying out cemetery, street improvements, and cleansing streets.	18 days - -	4d. per hour -	8	3*	675	—	*Unless married, in which case they were allowed to remain at work. Cost 421l., which was more than if done by contract.
LEICESTERSHIRE. Leicester Corporation	Levelling land, street cleansing, pulling down old buildings, brick cleaning, and stone-breaking.	7 weeks (10th Dec. to 28th Jan.).	4d. per hour -	7	2 to 3	1,015	216	A registry was opened, and applicants employed. Cost of relief work was 1,818l. 16s. 8d. A committee has been appointed to consider advisability of opening permanent Labour Bureau.
NORFOLK. Great Yarmouth Corporation	Stone-breaking and removing beach boulders.	3 months - -	2s. cubic yard 4d. per hour.	9	6	125	125	Spent 600l.
Norwich Corporation	Street improvements, stone-breaking.	"Month of January."	2s. per day, 3d. per bushel.	8	6	216	120	Inquiry was made as to character of applicants, and efforts made to prevent "loafers" getting employment. Cost 351l. Some excavating and sewerage work was expended.
WARWICKSHIRE. Leamington Spa Corporation.	Extending new river walk	2nd Feb. to 30th Mar.	—	—	—	—	—	Cost 179l. 4s. 4d. A "large number" of men were also employed clearing away snow during winter.

OTHER DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES—*cont.*

County and Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number employed.	Remarks.
WARWICKSHIRE—<i>cont.</i>								
Warwick Corporation	Assisting Council workmen on roads.	—	Average rate of the district.	—	—	—	—	Mayor opened Labour Fund, which is expended in doing work for the town which the Corporation is not at present inclined to charge on the rates. A permanent organisation, including Labour Bureau, is being formed.
WORCESTERSHIRE.								
Droitwich Corporation.	Stone-breaking	5 weeks	3s. 4d. per ton	8	6	43	13	Labour Registry was opened.
Dudley Corporation	Levelling recreation ground.	10 weeks	2s. 6d. per day	8½	2	180	—	Result as satisfactory as could reasonably be expected, looking to the fact that the men were unaccustomed to the work.
CAMBRIDGESHIRE.								
Chesterton Local Board.	Digging gravel and re-pairing grounds.	Clerk is unable to give further information.				20 to 30	—	Gravel is dug up and sold to provide funds for levelling the Recreation ground.
NORTHAMPTONSHIRE.								
Daventry Corporation	Sewage works	—	—	—	—	25	25	—

OTHER DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES—cont.

County and Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number employed.	Remarks.
GLAMORGANSHIRE. Cardiff Corporation.	Road-making in park Stone-breaking	8th Dec. to 11th May	8d. per hour. 1s. 4d. per yard.	7	—	264	—	A register was opened. Nearly every applicant was examined by a sub-committee. Over 80 per cent. of applicants were unskilled men. Preference for employment was given to married men. Work was inferior, and cost 15 per cent. more than if done under ordinary conditions. 1,933 ¹ / ₂ expended on labour. * Work probably cost 10 per cent. more than if done by navvies.
Swansea Corporation.	Road-making Sewering	3rd Dec. to 1st Mar. 3rd Feb. to 8th July and still in progress.	Labourers, 18s. per week. Gangers, 22s. per week.	9 9 ¹ / ₂	6 6	602 133	92 54	
	Building retaining wall	—	Masons, 33s. per week.	—	—	—	—	
GLOUCESTERSHIRE. Cirencester Local Board.	Stone-breaking	1 week Jan.	1s. 2d. per ton	8	—	15	—	
Tewkesbury Rural Sanitary Authority.	Outfall works	3 weeks	2s. 6d. per day	8	2 to 3*	109	32	
Essex. Barking Local Board.	Sewage works, sludge pits, and street improvements.	—	—	—	—	—	—	
								Total cost, 54. 18s. 8d.
								* Single men two days, married men with families three.

OTHER DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES—*cont.*

County and Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number employed.	Remarks.
ESSEX—<i>cont.</i>								
Colchester Corporation.	Stone-breaking	7 days (Jan. 12th to 18th).	2s. per day	10	6	70	5	Total cost, 37l. 11s.
Wanstead Local Board	Excavating gravel for sale to the public.	Union rates and hours.			6	10	10	"At times the work was not profitable owing to the weather preventing the men getting out as much gravel as represented their wages."
HERTS.								
Watford Local Board	Excavating and screening gravel.	31st Dec. to 21st Jan.	2s. 6d. per day to 5th Jan., 2s. afterwards.	8 7½	6	250	119	Engineer reports that the work at that time of year cost about double what it would if done in summer with skilled labour. Total amount spent, 218l. 8s. 6d.
WILTS.								
Trowbridge Local Board.	Road-making and alterations to market pad-dock.	2 months	2s. 6d. per day	8	Some 6, others 2 to 3.	20	11	Married men with families and men out of regular work, were given preference for employment.
KENT.								
Dartford Local Board	Street improvements executed.	—	—	—	—	—	—	Total amount spent, 1,440l.

OTHER DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES—cont.

County and Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number employed.	Remarks.
Sussex. Brighton Corporation	Road-making and cleaning, shifting beach, levelling land, painting public buildings, improvements to esplanade and clearing of condemned sites.	14th Nov. to 22nd April; a portion still in progress.	Bricklayers, 7½d. per hour; painters, 6½d. per hour; others 4d. to 5d. per hour.	9 to 11 (painters 8)	6	789	289	The majority of the men employed in painting were stopped, after two weeks' work to give place to others, in consequence of the large number waiting employment. The works in connexion with the improvements to esplanade were said to have been idle for some months during the summer in consequence of a strike in the Building Trade. Expenditure on special work, 610l. 8,200l. Painters' trade union protested against rate of wages paid, but no action was taken. During January and February daily average was 24, afterwards decreased gradually to 4.
Hastings Corporation	Painting railings round park.	3 months -	5d. per hour -	6	6	38	—	
Lewes Corporation	Cleaning out ornamental waters. Levelling a street -	7th Feb. to 25th March - 30th Jan. and 14th April.	Top men, 3½d. per hour - Bottom men, 4½d. per hour - 3½d. per hour	9½ to 10 9½ to 10 9½ to 10	6 6 6	35 17	16 7	Total amount spent, 176l.

OTHER DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES—*cont.*

County and Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily average Number employed.	Remarks.
HANTS. Fareham Local Board	Making new footpath	5 weeks	2s. per day	8½	4	27	6	Total amount spent in labour, 20l. 8s.
DEVON. Plymouth Corporation.	Road-making	15th Dec. to 13th May.	Carpenters, 21st 8 hours, 4s. 6d. per day. Masons, 7d. per hour. Masons' labourers, 4d. per hour. General labourers, 4d. per hour. Excavators, 5d. per hour. Foreman, 4s. per day. Timekeeper, 3s. 4d. per day.	To Jan. 21st 8 hours, From 23rd Jan. to 25th Feb. masons worked 8½, and labourers 9 hours. From 27th Feb. all the men worked 8½ hours.	6	41	23	A permanent labour registry established. Work cost more than if done under usual conditions. A number of men were also employed at wood-chopping by a private committee, elected at a public meeting.

SCOTLAND.

Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number employed.	Remarks.
Aberdeen Corporation	Excavating and laying out of new park. Levelling and excavating for new grassholder.	— —	3d. to 4½d. per hour. —	— —	— —	{ About 60 " 130	— —	No men were employed unless they were ratepayers on the current year's valuation roll, or had been residents in the town for the previous six months. Under ordinary circumstances these works would have been carried out by contract.
Govan Corporation	Street cleansing	5 months	4d. per hour.	4 to 7	—	—	—	Special committee appointed by the Lord Provost and magistrates arranged relief work.
Glasgow	Laying out two new parks	7½ days (8th Dec. to 4th Mar.).	Breakfast and dinner, and 1s. a day, 2s. for Saturdays.	6½ to 7	6	1,231	467	Only men approved by the C. O. S. employed. Balance sheet shows that cost was 3,163s., or 1,702½ more than value of work executed. After 10 weeks the men were put on piece-work wages, which had the effect of greatly diminishing numbers.
Greenock Corporation	Laying out cemetery. Clearing stones from shore, and stone-breaking.	26th Dec. to 28th April.	1s. 6d. a day. 10s. a week.	7½	6	270	60	Work was commenced at request of Trades Council, which intimated that the union rate of wages would not be expected. A public subscription was opened to obtain funds for wages, but was not responded to freely, and works had to cease. A new set of men were engaged each week until all had been employed.

SCOTLAND—cont.

Name of Local Authority.	Class of Work provided.	How long in Progress.	Rate of Pay.	Hours of Work per Day.	Number of Days per Week during which the same Men were employed.	Total Number of individual Men to whom Work was given.	Daily Average Number employed.	Remarks.
Paisley Corporation	Quarrying, stone-breaking, and street cleansing.	5½ weeks (28th Jan. to 8th Mar.)	4d. per hour.	6	4	350	68	Total expended, 473l.
Dundee Corporation	Navvying at new street and recreation ground. Stone-breaking	12th Dec. to 31st May.	3d. per hour. 1s. 8d. per cubic yard.	8½ to 10	6	300	60	Only men approved by the C. O. S. employed at first. About 100 men left after a few days' work. Stone-breaking was inferior, and material not of same value as when done by ordinary labour.
Partick (a committee of inhabitants, with assistance of Commissioners).	Stone-breaking and road-making.	23rd Dec. to 29th April.	2s. per day; 2s. 2d. per cubic yard.	8 to 9	6	200	33	Paid in wages, 384l.

IRELAND.

No works for the relief of the unemployed were carried out during the winter of 1892-3 by any Local Authority in Ireland.

STATEMENT showing Number and Occupations of Unemployed
Persons whose names were entered on Temporary Labour
Registries in certain selected Districts during the periods
stated.

TABLES showing the NUMBER and OCCUPATIONS of UNEMPLOYED PERSONS
Districts during the

Occupations.	Lime-house.	Shore-ditch.	Strand.	St. Martin-in-the-Fields.	St. Mary-lebone.	Paddington.	Kensington.	St. Olave, Southwark.
	Nov. 1892 to Feb. 1893.	Nov. 1892 to May 1893.	Feb. 1893 to May 1893.	Nov. 1892 to May 1893.	Dec. 1892 to March 1893.	Jan. to Dec. 1892.	Winter 1892-3.	Nov. 1892 to Jan. 1893.
Men.								
Farm labourers . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Gardeners . . .	—	—	—	—	4	2	6	—
Building trades :—								
Bricklayers and masons . . .	—	16	—	—	7	6	15	—
Carpenters and joiners . . .	1	17	1	2	11	—	4	—
Painters . . .	1	22	—	8	48	11	40	2
Others (skilled artisans) . . .	—	8	2	—	7	2	11	—
Builders' labourers . . .	4	45	—	—	113	5	—	—
Engineering and metal trades . . .	9	26	1	5	11	7	9	—
Woodwork and furniture trades . . .	—	84	2	—	16	—	1	—
Printing and bookbinding trades . . .	—	21	2	6	1	—	—	—
Textile trades . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Leather and fur trades . . .	—	24	—	—	—	1	—	—
Clothing trades . . .	—	30	3	—	6	2	1	1
Food, drink, and tobacco (preparation of). . .	—	16	1	—	1	—	7	—
Engine-drivers, stokers, &c. . .	1	10	—	—	—	2	—	—
Miscellaneous (skilled) . . .	2	14	—	1	1	2	1	—
Carmen, stablemen, &c. . .	2	62	12	10	56	18	31	—
Shop assistants . . .	—	7	—	—	—	—	1	—
General labourers . . .	92	203	100	65	305	170	913	3
Clerks and warehousemen . . .	—	26	5	9	5	1	—	—
Porters and messengers . . .	—	109	38	44	62	1	6	—
Menservants, watchmen, and attendants. . .	—	5	—	4	4	1	—	—
Costermongers, street sellers, and dealers. . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	—
Others . . .	2	—	24	—	9	3	3	1
Total Men . . .	114	769	191	154	667	224	1,066	7
Boys . . .	—	23	—	1	—	—	—	—
WOMEN AND GIRLS.								
Dressmakers, seamstresses, &c. . .	—	2	—	2	10	—	—	—
Charwomen, washerwomen, &c. . .	—	26	—	9	54	—	—	—
Miscellaneous . . .	—	14	—	3	5	—	—	—
Total Women and Girls . . .	—	42	—	14	69	—	—	—
Grand Total of applicants	114	834	191	169	736	224	1,066	7
Number for whom work, temporary or otherwise, was found, apart from those employed by the local authorities on relief work. }	—	26	—	—	3	33	—	—

* Register managed by voluntary agency.

whose names were entered on Temporary Labour Registries in certain selected periods stated.

Lambeth.	Leeds.	Liverpool.*	Leicester.	Sheffield.	Beverley.	Gateshead.*	Occupations.
Nov. 1892 to Feb. 1893.	Dec. 1892 to March 1893.	Jan. to July 1893.	Dec. 1892 to Jan. 1893.	Jan. and Feb. 1893.	Dec. 1892 to March 1893.	March to May 1893.	
							MEN.
—	—	30	37	—	1	1	Farm labourers.
10	—	6	11	2	1	4	Gardeners.
16	13	16	9	11	—	14	Building trades:— Bricklayers and masons.
21	—	5	7	1	—	3	Carpenters and joiners.
105	96	24	55	23	—	—	Painters.
19	—	32	22	12	1	17	Others (skilled artisans).
—†	—	970	197	1	6	37	Builders' labourers.
51	423	10	36	290	—	106	Engineering and metal trades.
4	—	9	5	6	—	38	Woodwork and furniture trades.
3	—	7	3	4	—	6	Printing and bookbinding trades.
—	100	—	212	1	—	—	Textile trades.
3	73	—	—	—	—	—	Leather and fur trades.
9	—	—	886	1	—	7	Clothing trades.
9	—	—	5	3	—	1	Food, drink, and tobacco (preparation of).
12	—	—	4	23	—	2	Engine drivers, stokers, &c.
37	20	—	1	83	—	42	Miscellaneous (skilled).
138	—	1,300	22	19	—	21	Carmen, stablemen, &c.
11	—	95	—	2	23	16	Shop assistants.
1,201	987	900	215	512	—	147	General labourers.
12	—	200	9	7	1	2	Clerks and warehousemen.
45	—	60	—	4	—	1	Porters and messengers.
13	—	20	2	—	—	2	Menservants, watchmen, and attendants.
42	—	—	2	—	—	17	Costermongers, street sellers, and dealers.
8	223	—	14	4	4	52	Others.
1,277	1,274	2,774	1,747	1,008	37	538	Total Men.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	BOYS.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	WOMEN AND GIRLS.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Dressmakers, seamstresses, &c.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Charwomen, washerwomen, &c.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Miscellaneous.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Total Women and Girls.
1,277	1,274	2,774	1,747	1,008	37	538	Grand Total of applicants.
—	—	79	—	12	—	97	Number for whom work, temporary or otherwise, was found, apart from those employed by the local authorities on relief work.

† Included with general labourers.

From the foregoing table, relating to Municipal Relief Works, it appears that 38 local authorities provided work at road-making and sewerage, 22 at stone-breaking, 31 at road sweeping, 24 on digging work in parks, cemeteries, &c., 8 in getting and shifting ballast, sand, &c., 5 on sewage works, &c., 6 in painting, and 11 in other kinds of work. It will be noticed that many of the local authorities provided work of two or more of the above classes.

Of the 96 local authorities 35 established labour registries mostly of a temporary kind, on which the names of the unemployed were enrolled, and in many cases those employed on the relief works were selected from these registers, of which a fuller account is given on pp. 213-235.

Of the 96 local authorities, 33 were in London, 56 in other parts of England and Wales, and 7 in Scotland. No action was taken by the local authorities in Ireland.

No general principle appears to have prevailed in conducting these works. In some, as at Glasgow, Leeds, Norwich, Cardiff and other places, an effort appears to have been made to inquire into the character of applicants and to ensure that only those for whom the works were intended obtained employment, while in others the first men entered on the register were taken on, and in others again any person presenting himself was employed without any special inquiries being made.

The wages paid varied from 1s. per day to 6d. per hour; and in some cases skilled men were paid at their ordinary rate. In some cases the men were paid at the end of each day in cash, in others at the end of three days, or a week; sometimes wholly in cash, sometimes partly in kind.

In one district those among the men employed who were ratepayers were permitted to leave a portion of their earnings weekly as an instalment towards the payment of their rates.

The practice in different districts was equally divergent as regards the hours of work and the number of days per week for which the same men were employed. In some districts they were employed continuously, in others they were employed in weekly or half-weekly relays, those first employed waiting for their turn to come round again. In others the same men worked for three days a week, with a view to make the work benefit a larger number, and also to give those employed a chance of using the remaining three days to look for work.

Again, the actual relation of the local authority to the employment of the "unemployed" varied in different districts. In Leeds, and in many other centres, the corporation employed the labour direct, in Liverpool it contracted with a voluntary association for the supply of unemployed labour at a certain rate and took no further responsibility; in Wolverhampton the action of the corporation was confined to devising work (road cleaning, digging, &c.) which the unemployed could carry out under the supervision of the borough surveyor, the wages being paid out of a fund raised by voluntary subscriptions.

In Warwick a somewhat similar policy was pursued. The London County Council confined itself to allowing the use of a piece of waste land for test labour by a voluntary committee which made all arrangements and took all responsibility.

A few notes are added on the work carried out in various districts.

(a.) LONDON.

The work provided for the unemployed by some of the London vestries was not in most cases sufficiently important or extensive to call for special description in addition to the particulars contained in the table on p. 188. The circumstances that led to such action being taken in London have been already described. It will be remembered that besides the Local Government Board Circular, a circular was addressed to the metropolitan vestries by the London Trades Council, inviting them to open temporary labour registries, which were accordingly established with varying degrees of success by 16 vestries. Some of the men whose names were on the registers were employed in road sweeping, clearing away snow, scavenging, or in other forms of temporary occupation. Thus a large amount of such extra casual employment was provided by the Kensington and Lambeth Vestries. The Lambeth Vestry, for example, between December 15th and February 9th, employed 1,550 individuals (out of a total of 1,877 whose names were registered), at a cost of 962*l.* 17*s.* 1*d.* Each person employed had, as a rule, three days' work at street cleansing, and was paid 6*d.* an hour. This plan of employing men a few days (usually three), and then letting them wait until their turn came round again was followed by a few other vestries and boards of works, (*e.g.*, Poplar and Fulham), while in several other districts (*e.g.*, Woolwich, Newington, Whitechapel, Bethnal Green, Shoreditch, and Hackney) the men were employed for the most part in two relays, each set working three days a week. This was on the whole the plan most generally adopted, but in some districts the work provided (*e.g.*, clearing snow) was entirely irregular in character, so that no systematic plan could be followed.

In a few other districts the provision of work took the form of temporary additions to the ordinary staff of the local authority who worked for the ordinary hours during the full six days in the week. This was the case in St. Marylebone, where employment for three months was given to a weekly average of about 108 men at road sweeping, sewage work, &c. It is clear that when we come to deal with labourers engaged on ordinary terms on the ordinary vestry work it becomes difficult to draw a sharp line between those employed for the purposes of relief and those employed in the usual course of business. It is, however, to be noted that both in London and the provinces a certain amount

of work which, to quote the terms of the Local Government Board circular, falls within "the ordinary routine duties of the sanitary authority," but some of which would in the ordinary course of things have been postponed until a later season of the year, was expedited and arranged so as to utilise surplus labour during the slackest portion of the year. For reasons stated above it is not possible to define exactly the amount of relief so given, but it does not appear to have been provided on a large scale.

Many of the vestries made very little inquiry as to the *bona fides* of applicants. In Hampstead, however, the men were employed at stone-breaking or painting, on the recommendation of the relieving officer, and the co-operation of the Guardians was also secured in Shoreditch, Whitechapel, St. Saviour's, Southwark, Woolwich, and Plumstead. In most of the other districts, however, the suggestion of the Local Government Board circular that "in all cases in which special works are undertaken to meet "exceptional distress . . . the men employed should be engaged "on the recommendation of the Guardians" was not carried out. In Bethnal Green the system of recommendation of applicants by the relieving officers was tried, but subsequently independent investigators were appointed.

In this connection it should be noticed that several of the Boards of Guardians in London took common action in declining to carry out the suggestions contained in the Local Government Board circular. The reasons assigned for this course are set forth in the following resolution forwarded to the Local Government Board on November 23rd, 1892, by the Guardians of St. George's-in-the-East, which was also approved by the Guardians of St. Marylebone, Westminster, Paddington, and St. George's, Hanover Square, and by the vestry of St. James and St. John, Clerkenwell.

"The guardians venture very respectfully to urge that any action on their part, whether in co-operation with the vestry or otherwise, having for its object the provision of work for wages for the unemployed would be foreign to their duties as administrators of the poor law; also that it would have the effect of impressing the working classes with the idea that the State had set itself the task of guaranteeing employment whenever the labour market was slack, for all men who might be out of work from whatever cause. If a temporary crisis, such as the freezing over of the river, or a disaster like the Lancashire cotton famine, were to occur, the guardians admit that exceptional measures might be required, but they respectfully submit that the necessary funds ought to be, and would be, readily contributed from charitable sources. This last course would not involve any departure from sound principle in the administration of the public rates, nor throw additional burdens on persons unable to bear them; the guardians see no reason to anticipate greater difficulty this winter in dealing satisfactorily with distress than they have experienced in former winters."

As will be seen on reference to the table on p. 188, the vestries in several of the above districts attempted to provide relief work in spite of the opposition of the guardians.

The report for the year 1892-3 of the Surveyor of the Kensington Vestry, which provided a considerable amount of relief work for the unemployed, contains a detailed account of the work with some strong criticisms on the whole plan of proceedings, some of which are worth quoting in this report, as giving a fair idea of the difficulty of making such relief work effective, and the objections entertained—by many of those who have great experience of the carrying out of the work of local authorities—to the utilisation of such work as a means of relieving distress.

The work provided is thus described :—

“Stone-breaking being the only work continuously available, Hammer-smith Wharf was opened for that purpose on the 19th December 1892, and was closed on the 22nd February 1893. The men were paid 3*d.* per cwt. for breaking Guernsey Granite spalls, sufficiently small to pass through a 2½ inch gauge.

“The total number of days’ work thus given was 1,010; 901 to stone-breakers, and 109 to wheel-barrow men; the working hours averaged 7·7 per day, and the average earnings per man per day were 3*s.* 1½*d.*, omitting from calculation 35 men who threw up the work soon after starting. An analysis of the wages shows that,—

8 men earned over 6*s.* and under 7*s.* each.

46	”	”	5 <i>s.</i>	”	6 <i>s.</i>	”
141	”	”	4 <i>s.</i>	”	5 <i>s.</i>	”
271	”	”	3 <i>s.</i>	”	4 <i>s.</i>	”
267	”	”	2 <i>s.</i>	”	3 <i>s.</i>	”
133	”	”	1 <i>s.</i>	”	2 <i>s.</i>	”
35	”	”	under 1 <i>s.</i>			

“The maximum earnings of any one man was 6*s.* 10½*d.* for nine hours’ work, a little over 9*d.* per hour.

“Five hundred and thirty-four tons of spalls, costing the vestry 242*l.* 5*s.* 10*d.* were thus broken, at an expense of 177*l.* 0*s.* 8*d.* for breakers’ wages, supervision, and tools, making the cost of each ton of broken granite to be 15*s.* 8½*d.* The contract price for broken granite (2 inch gauge) delivered to the same wharf, was 14*s.* 8*d.* per cubic yard, or 12*s.* 4*d.* per ton; it will therefore be seen that each ton of spalls broken, entailed loss to the vestry of 3*s.* 4½*d.* without taking into account the loss on road wear, arising from the inferior breakage of the stone by the casual labourers.

“The only other relief work during the past winter was that of cleansing roads from mud and snow; 682*l.* 8*s.* 6*d.* was paid for 5,165 days’ work varying from 5½ to 8 hours per day.

“In accordance with the directions of the vestry, a register of applicants for work has been kept for some years. During the past winter 1,056 men applying for work have thus been registered; and the following information and particulars are extracted from the book :—

OCCUPATIONS OF THE 1056 APPLICANTS.

Labourers	-	-	913	Engineer's Fitters	-	-	2
Painters	-	-	40	Canvassers	-	-	2
Carmen	-	-	18	Milkmen	-	-	2
Bricklayers	-	-	14	Chairmaker	-	-	1
Horsekeepers	-	-	10	Brickmaker	-	-	1
Bakers	-	-	7	Messenger	-	-	1
Gardeners	-	-	6	String Maker	-	-	1
Plasterers	-	-	6	Boot Maker	-	-	1
Blacksmiths	-	-	5	Carpet Beater	-	-	1
Porters	-	-	5	Marble Polisher	-	-	1
Costermongers	-	-	5	Steel Polisher	-	-	1
Carpenters	-	-	4	Rivetter	-	-	1
Cabmen	-	-	3	Potman	-	-	1
Plumbers	-	-	3	Mason	-	-	1

Conjugal condition { Married	-	-	-	735
Single	-	-	-	321

1,056

False addresses given by	-	-	-	112
Lodging in common lodging-houses	-	-	-	110
Satisfactory replies	-	-	-	790
Unsuitable	-	-	-	17
Not inquired into	-	-	-	27

1056

"In addition to the 6,175 days' work distributed amongst applicants, letters were sent to all the large employers of labour in the district, notifying the existence of the register, and inviting applications from them should they be wanting workpeople of any kind.

"Although many courteous acknowledgments were received, not one application was made for labour. It will be seen from the above list that $\frac{1}{10}$ ths of the men on the register designate themselves as labourers, a very wide and indefinite description, and it is hardly necessary for a master to apply for such labour at a depôt.

The surveyor speaks of the "widespread feeling yearly growing in intensity that it is the duty of some constituted authority to provide work for anyone demanding employment," and of the circumstances under which the difficulty after being "passed on" "has settled itself on the shoulders of the parochial authorities, i.e., the Board of Guardians and the Vestries and District Board of Works. The former shake off the incubus by simply conforming to the orders laid down for their guidance in the administration of relief to the poor," with the final result that "the difficulty has to be faced by the Vestry or District Board who, as a rule, pass general resolutions instructing its executive officers virtually to do the best they can under the circumstances." Speaking of the

difficult position in which the vestry officials find themselves placed, the report observes that :—

“ At the times of the greatest distress, viz. :—during prolonged frosts, all out-door building operations are stopped, simultaneously with the stoppage of the whole of the work on the parish roads, and at such times, not only is there no scope for the employment of extra labour, but on the contrary if the parish work was conducted on strict lines of business economy, 75 per cent. of the regular hands might be suspended whenever a hard frost of any duration occurs.

Of course if a snow storm happens, all available labour is welcome, but its mixed character renders it impossible to deal with a snowfall with anything like the success which might reasonably be looked for if the attempt was made by regular labourers under proper direction. It frequently occurs on expostulating with a man for idling or neglecting his work, that he will tell you that he has not come on for the purpose of working, he merely wants his money ; others will seize opportunities to obtain money from householders for clearing away the snow, thus getting paid twice for the same work, in fact it requires a good man (physically) as ganger, and an honest one to get anything approaching a fair return in the way of labour, for the wages paid.”

The report further comments on the objection of the unemployed, or at least of their spokesmen, to stone-breaking as being “ convict labour,” and their demand for “ work of a (to them) non-repulsive character remunerated at Union rate “ wages ” and adds :—

“ Every practical man is aware that road-making, ground work and building operations, cannot be executed in the winter as efficiently and economically as they can be performed in the other seasons of the year. Opportunities for exceptional works occasionally occur, as in the case of the formation of Avondale Park, where some 3,000*l.* was paid as wages to unskilled labourers, but such a work is not likely to again arise for very many years to come. If such works were less infrequent they would soon be demanded and anticipated as a matter of right.”

The demolition of Millbank Prison.—Although the present chapter is concerned mainly with the action of local authorities, some account should be given, while we are dealing with the Metropolitan districts, of an effort made by the Office of Works to give employment to a certain number of the unemployed in London by utilising their labour for the demolition of Millbank prison. The following particulars with regard to this scheme are based on the report of the contractors to the Office of Works, dated July 28th, 1893.

The contractors were empowered to retain “ No. 1 ” Pentagon, employ experienced foremen, time-keepers and gangers, purchase the necessary tools, engage the “ unemployed ” at the rate of 6½*d.* per hour, and to dispose of the materials when got down in any manner they thought most advantageous for the Government. The contractors on their part agreed to make no charge for the extra demands made on them by the conduct of such a scheme.

On the first day 49 men were selected at random from a large crowd of applicants, and a week later the number was increased

to 100. Later some preference was shown to those who came with recommendations from former employers, clergy of all denominations, and certain individuals. On the whole 122 of the "unemployed" were employed, about 90 per cent. being, so far as ascertained, bricklayers' labourers, whose trade at that time was disorganised owing to the frost and other causes. The remaining 10 per cent. were stone-masons, iron workers, navvies, gardeners, discharged soldiers, and one dock-labourer. Their residences were as follows :—

Chelsea, Battersea, Lambeth and Camberwell	-	55
Pimlico and Westminster	-	11
Fulham, Kensington, Notting Hill, and Marylebone	-	17
Kentish Town	-	2
Clerkenwell	-	14
Borough	-	14
Deptford	-	1
St. Luke's	-	2
Stepney	-	6
		<hr/>
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The contractors report that "the men worked very fairly at first, though from their ignorance of the proper methods the results achieved were inadequate; but as time went on they drifted away to other and more congenial works. We believe that, although the wages paid to them were hardly more than half what the regular pullers-down demanded, in very few instances did a contractor engage them, or consider that there would be any economy in doing so."

The wages paid out amounted in all to 1,644*l.* and during December, January, and February averaged 106*l.* a week.

The cost of cleaning and stacking the bricks by unemployed labour when paid by the time averaged 12*s.* to 13*s.* a thousand, but "on two occasions when gangs of the same men were employed by piece-work they managed to earn higher wages than before although the rate agreed on was only 7*s.* a 1,000, and later on when men were scarce, a dangerous piece was let to a skilled gang who found it profitable at 8*s.* 6*d.* a 1,000."

(b.) OTHER DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND WALES.

Turning again to other districts of England and Wales, we find the same diversity of methods pursued.

In most cases the reports supplied by the various local authorities show few signs of any systematic attempt at co-operation with the guardians as recommended in the Local Government Board Circular or with existing relief agencies, for the purpose of selecting among the applicants for employment. In

Burnley, however, applicants were examined in the Town Hall in the presence of the Poor Law Relieving Officer, the town missionaries and the corporation inspectors, previous to the provision of work. At other places (e.g., St. Helen's) residence in the district was the only condition; at Widnes each applicant had to present a letter from a town councillor certifying as to his residence and his need of employment. In several cases (e.g., Leeds, Cardiff, Trowbridge, &c.) married men with families were given preference for employment.

The most important of the relief works carried out by English local authorities were undoubtedly those provided by the Corporation of Leeds, where 1,103 persons obtained an average of about 60 days' employment. A separate description of the Leeds relief work is therefore given on pp. 222-228. The relief work organised in Liverpool in conjunction with the corporation, though on a very much smaller scale, has some features of peculiar interest owing to the mode in which it was conducted and the extent of the agitation which led up to it, and an account is therefore also given of this work on pp. 228-231.

No other relief works in England and Wales appear to call for a detailed account in addition to the tabular statement on 188.

On the whole, the small number of local authorities outside London who took any special action will be noticed. Of the provincial local authorities which replied to the circular of March 428 stated that there was no exceptional distress, 69 that there was no want of employment, 23 that employment was plentiful, 18 reported the existence of distress but took no action, 44 gave no definite information as to distress, while in 52 cases only were steps taken to provide work for the unemployed.

As in London, several local authorities in the provinces seem to have expedited certain parts of their ordinary work in order to enlarge the field of employment during a slack period. It is, however, impossible to give any precise statement as to the extent to which this was done or as to its results.

In the case of Birmingham the whole question of providing work for the unemployed has been recently considered by the General Purposes Committee of the Corporation with a view to determining what action, if any, should be taken next winter. The conclusions of the Committee are thus described in a report to the Corporation dated 25th July 1893:—

"The Corporation, as at present constituted, is necessarily a great employer of labour, and hitherto no difficulty has been experienced in obtaining such labour in the open market at the ordinary rate of wages. Directly, however, the principle of *quasi* charitable employment is introduced two questions arise:—(1.) Is this charitable work really useful and economical? and (2.) How does it affect the men hitherto employed?"

"For instance, no one having a piece of work in hand would willingly employ workmen who are unaccustomed to the particular work; and here one of the great difficulties of charitable employment

arises. The unemployed, as statistics will show, are usually men of the most varied occupations ; and it may be fairly presumed that some of them are not the most thrifty, thoughtful workmen, or men particularly handy at their respective trades. To put a number of ill-assorted workmen of this kind upon any public work would be fatal to its proper execution. In many cases the men would be physically unequal to the task, and in all they would require an amount of supervision quite incommensurate with any advantage that might be obtained from lower wages.

"Then what would be the effect upon the workmen hitherto employed ? Much of the work of the Corporation is of the roughest character, and is carried on in the open air. The season when want of employment is most felt is generally the winter ; and what is to become of the regular Corporation workmen if numbers of the unemployed are taken on during precisely that season of the year when the least amount of out-door work can be done ?

"It is true that after a heavy fall of snow extra men may be taken on, but the number that can be usefully employed is governed by the carts and horses obtainable, as, unless the snow is removed from the streets, the expenditure of time and money is comparatively useless.

"The experience of the past winter has demonstrated that only a small proportion of the unemployed could be so engaged, and then only for a few days. To do the work in the most economical manner, the most suitable men (generally those accustomed to out-door work) should be selected, while for every day's wages paid to the workmen, twice as much has to be expended in the hire of horses and carts, and the result, although costly, is not very apparent.

"Of course, the most useful employment for men out of work would be in the trades to which they were accustomed to work, but it would be entirely beyond the scope of a municipality to find employment for workmen in their own trades. The Corporation have not the power, nor, in the opinion of your Committee, would it be wise for them if they had, to become manufacturers of the numerous articles made in the town. Municipal workshops must be dismissed as out of the question.

"It remains, therefore, to fall back upon the sound principle that municipalities exist for certain limited public functions, and these purposes must be carefully considered, and the limitation of corporate duties borne in mind. The local government of a town as respects its lighting, watching, and public works, has no necessary connection with the relief of distress. It is the duty of the municipality to carry out its proper municipal functions in the most effective and economical manner, and with this object to employ the most able and competent workmen.

"The relief of the poor is entirely another branch of local self-government, and has been delegated by the Legislature to the Board of Guardians ; but even here a distinction is drawn between poverty and destitution, for it is the latter only that the guardians are legally at liberty to relieve. The claim that every man out of work shall be found work by someone else, cannot be recognised,"

(c.) SCOTLAND.

As regards Scotland, information has been supplied to the Department both directly and in response to an inquiry addressed by the Scottish Office to the principal Scottish local authorities.

The most extensive relief works appear to have been carried out in Glasgow, where a total number of 1,251 individuals were employed in digging, trenching, and stonebreaking. The work lasted 74 days and employed an average of 467 men per day. A fuller description of these works is given on pp. 231-235.

At Dundee the Police Commissioners appointed a sub-committee to deal with the question of the unemployed. Stone-breaking at 1s. 8d. per yard (the usual price to regular men being 1s. 10d.) and navvying at 3d. per hour was provided for men recommended by the Charity Organisation Society, the tools and plant being provided by the Commissioners. Out of 450 applicants only 300 accepted the work, and of these fully 100 worked a few days only. About 500*l.* has been paid for stone-breaking, but the work done is inferior to that done under ordinary conditions and the material broken is not of the same value.

At Greenock, on December 6th last, the Trades Council sent a deputation to the Town Council to call attention to the prevailing distress, and to suggest that works of some kind should be started for the unemployed. It was stated that under the circumstances they would not expect the trades union rates of wages to be paid. After inquiry the Town Council decided on December 23rd to commence the work of clearing away boulders, stones, &c., from a portion of the foreshore, in order to make it suitable for sea bathing. This work was chosen because it could be begun without delay and the expenditure would be almost entirely for wages. An appeal was made to the public for subscriptions in money with which to pay wages, but was so poorly responded to that the work had to be stopped for want of funds. The total expenditure was 408*l.* 16*s.*, of which 365*l.* 11*s.* 10d. was paid in wages. The men employed were recommended after inquiry by the "Charitable Society" and their conduct was "all over very good." 270 individuals were helped with work.

At Aberdeen the Town Council found employment for 190 men in constructing a new gasholder tank and in laying out a new park. The men were paid 3d. to 4½d. per hour—"according to their ability and the nature of the work." No men were engaged unless they were ratepayers on the current year's valuation roll, or had been resident in the town for the previous six months.

At Partick a joint committee of commissioners and residents arranged with the commissioners to provide employment for the unemployed at stone-breaking and road-making under the supervision of the burgh surveyor, to be paid by the Commissioners at the ordinary rates charged by contractors for similar work. Work was given "only to the necessitous and deserving so far as the Committee could ascertain such cases."

(d.) IRELAND.

From reports furnished by the local authorities of the respective districts, it appears that no local works were carried out in

Ireland during the past winter. A want of employment was no doubt felt in some of the poorer districts during the winter months, but it does not appear from the reports of the Local Government Board's General Inspectors that any exceptional scarcity existed.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF SELECTED SCHEMES.

Following this general sketch, we may proceed to give a more detailed description of the working of a few selected schemes of municipal work for the unemployed.

Leeds.

For some time past Leeds has suffered from a somewhat acute depression of the iron trades. During the autumn of 1892 a series of meetings of the unemployed were held in the Town Hall Square, and in consequence of representations made by those organising these meetings, and the receipt of the Local Government Board circular of Nov. 14th, a sum of 10,000*l.* was voted by the Corporation for the employment of such men as appeared to be in need in excavating and levelling ground for new parks in various parts of the district.

Accordingly a register of persons unemployed was opened in the City Engineer's Office, each applicant for registration being verbally examined by a member of the engineer's staff. The particulars about which inquiry was made included (besides name and address) the age, occupation, state as regards marriage, last employer, how long out of work, reason for leaving last employment, length of residence in Leeds, number of family not working, income, and club allowance. Most of these particulars were not verified, but the following circular was addressed in all cases to the previous employer, and if the reply was unsatisfactory the applicant was rejected.

LEEDS UNEMPLOYED.

Borough Engineer's Office,
Municipal Buildings,
Leeds, 189

DEAR SIR,

APPLICATION having been made to the Corporation by _____ for employment, and as it is feared work cannot be afforded for all who may apply for same, the Corporation are wishful of giving the most deserving the first opportunity. To enable them to ascertain this, will you have the kindness to fill up and return *at once* to me the enclosed form, which has reference to an applicant who has referred us to you for information.

Yours obediently,

Borough and Waterworks Engineer.

PARTICULARS AS TO APPLICANT.

1.—How long was he in }
your service? }

2.—How was he employed? _____

3.—When did he leave? _____

4.—Why did he leave your employ? _____

Men known to be on strike were also excluded, and precedence for employment was given to married men with families. Beyond these restrictions there was little selection attempted, and there was no systematic co-operation with the Poor Law Authorities or the Charity Organisation Society or other relief associations.

The total number of names of "unemployed" persons entered on the register up to the middle of March was 1,874, who may be classified according to their alleged occupations and the districts of Leeds in which they lived, according to the following table:—

ANALYSIS of NAMES REGISTERED up to and including Wednesday, March 15th, 1893, by TRADES and WARDS in which they lived.

Names of Wards.	Out-door Labourers.	In-door Labourers.	Wool-len Work-ers.	Iron Work-ers.	Leather Work-ers.	Miners.	Paint-ers.	Brick-layers and Masons.	Sundry.	Total.
Mill Hill	7	—	1	1	1	—	—	—	2	12
West	57	24	24	45	6	—	13	—	21	190
Brunswick	11	1	—	4	6	—	5	—	9	36
Central	53	4	8	13	2	1	6	—	26	113
North	25	7	5	19	7	2	8	3	11	87
North East	120	14	7	39	21	4	10	2	34	241
East	187	24	22	71	12	6	13	5	41	381
South	54	12	4	31	—	1	9	—	17	123
East Hunslet	44	13	—	34	1	—	2	—	9	103
Holbeck	50	12	9	75	2	1	6	—	16	172
New Wortley	20	9	3	27	1	2	3	—	4	78
Armley and Wortley.	35	8	5	19	3	2	2	1	5	80
Bramley	5	1	3	—	—	1	—	1	9	20
Headingley	34	7	3	13	3	—	6	—	4	70
North West	28	7	4	13	6	—	9	—	7	64
West Hunslet.	20	5	2	20	2	—	4	—	8	79
Totals	778	149	100	423	73	20	96	19	223	1,874

Of the men registered 771 were rejected or withdrew their application for work for various reasons, and 1,103 were actually employed by the Corporation. The following detailed analysis of the trades of those so employed is taken from the Register :—

Gardeners -	-	-	-	-	9
Building Trades :—					
Brick-makers	-	-	-	-	3
Bricklayers	-	-	-	-	9
Joiners	-	-	-	-	15
Painters	-	-	-	-	55
Mining	-	-	-	-	9
Engineering and Metal Trades	-	-	-	-	264
Printing Trades	-	-	-	-	4
Leather Trades	-	-	-	-	43
Textile Trades	-	-	-	-	65
Tailors	-	-	-	-	3
Food, drink, &c. (preparation of)	-	-	-	-	6
Enginemens and stokers	-	-	-	-	14
Platelayer	-	-	-	-	1
Carters	-	-	-	-	19
Grooms	-	-	-	-	4
Out-door Labourers	-	-	-	-	493
Indoor do.	-	-	-	-	72
Clerks	-	-	-	-	2
Watchmen	-	-	-	-	3
Miscellaneous	-	-	-	-	10
					<hr/> 1,103 <hr/>

The men employed on the following works were as under :—

Works.	No. of Men employed.
Pasture Hills - - - -	300
East Park - - - -	370
Cross Flats - - - -	146
Kirkstall Abbey - - - -	102
Hunslet Moor - - - -	173
Woodhouse Moor - - - -	12
	<hr/> 1,103 <hr/>

Each man was employed for three days a week (Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday ; or Thursday, Friday and Saturday) for nine hours a day at 5d. an hour. He could thus earn 11s. 3d. a week and have three days free in which, if so disposed, he could look for other work. The relief works began on December 15th and were closed as such on April 26th, though a

certain number of men have been kept at work in some of these districts up to the present time (August), and as they still work only for three days a week, the work may still be said to partake of the character of relief work.

The work performed consisted chiefly of spade labour. The quality of the work done varied considerably at different works. At the East End Park the men were considered to work fairly well considering their want of experience in digging, while in most of the other districts the work was far from satisfactory. On the average each man employed had about 60 days' work.

Towards the end of April the scarcity of employment being considered less acute the Corporation decided to close the works (with the exception alluded to above). By that time some of the best of the labourers had obtained independent employment, and some of the worst had been dismissed for insubordination or other misconduct. Thus during the week ending March 15th the number employed was 724 (370 during the first half and 354 during the second half), and this number was still further reduced by the end of April. Nevertheless the closing of the works caused great complaints among the men who were employed on them up to the end, and they continued to hold meetings and send deputations to the Council, demanding that the unexpended balance of the fund voted for relief work by the Corporation should be spent. Subsequently a section of the unemployed formed a labour bureau in the Waverley Hall, which was lent to them free of charge by the proprietor. The bureau has been managed by a committee of the unemployed, and up to the end of July registered some 800 names, mainly of unskilled labourers. All persons in receipt of any allowance from a trade society or club were excluded. Up to the end of July, however, no employers had applied for men to the bureau, as, indeed, is only natural, seeing that there has been a surplus throughout the district of the kind of labourers who alone have been enrolled. The bureau, having therefore been unsuccessful, the committee have raised funds by means of collecting boxes carried by unemployed members, and made a daily distribution of the proceeds in the shape of bread and tea among those on the register. Attempts have recently been made to make the bureau permanent, and connect it with the principal employers by telephone; but the organisation as hitherto conducted has met with no sympathy from the local trade unionists, who are of opinion that, while valueless as a means of diminishing want of employment generally, it might easily become a centre for the supply of non-union labour at the time of a trade dispute.

On account of the large scale on which the Leeds relief works were conducted it has been thought desirable to obtain some particulars as to the position of the men so employed after an interval of three or four months, with a view to ascertain how far, if at all, they have been permanently benefited by the scheme

The total number dealt with (1,103) was obviously too great to allow of detailed inquiries as to all of them. Accordingly a selection was made of about 120 cases drawn from the West, East Hunslet, East and North East Wards, the number selected in each ward being roughly proportionate to the total number of applicants from that district. These 120 cases were personally visited or otherwise inquired into by one of the Labour Correspondents of the Department during the week ending August 19th. In 37 cases the men had moved or had given wrong addresses, and could not be traced, the address given proving in nine cases to be that of a common lodging-house, and in two to be that of a public-house. In 6 other cases no information could be obtained (no one being at home, or for other reasons). In the remaining 77 cases, the conditions as regards employment may be stated as follows :—

Working at their own trades	-	-	-	27
Working at other occupations (including some cases of very casual and intermittent work)	-	-	-	5
Out of work	-	-	-	28
Still working (3 days a week) at Corporation relief works	-	-	-	11
In workhouse	-	-	-	4
Ill	-	-	-	2

Of those working at their former occupations 15 were labourers, and seven belonged to various branches of the iron trade. The five cases of men working at other occupations than their own were as follows :—

Former occupation.	Present occupation.
Iron turner	Dyers' labourer.
Iron turner	Hawker (intermittent).
Fitter	Labourer.
Whitesmith	Labourer (in iron works).
Rough cutter	Hawker (intermittent).

Among the men still working at the relief works are a few who left the works on getting a job and have returned to them again on losing it.

The accounts furnished of 27 of the men still out of work at the time of inquiry seem to show that in almost every case they belong to the chronically "out-of-work" class (so-called), i.e., the class of men who are unaccustomed to regular work, and who have either little capacity or little taste for it.

In order to make quite clear the character of the class of men who form so large a proportion of the cases investigated, the

following summary is given of the information obtained with regard to *each* of these 27 cases.

- No. 1. Labourer - - Wife applied to workhouse in July last owing to his neglect. He has often had poor law relief and often neglected wife. Well-known to relieving officer.
- No. 2. Fitter - - Has been out of work ever since the relief work ended. Seems half-witted. Supported by two sisters (tailoresses) with other help.
- No. 3. Painter - - Has applied to relieving officer four times and to Charity Organisation Society three times during 1892-3. Wife ill. Man in low health. Caught bronchitis on relief works. Has had work since, but lost it in middle of July.
- No. 4. Cloth-dresser (labourer). - - Has been out of work since relief works. Has had no regular work for years. Has never belonged to a club or trade society. Wife does charing.
- No. 5. Striker - - No work since relief works. No trade society, but belongs to friendly society, daughter paying subscription. Two daughters at a linen factory.
- No. 6. Joiner - - No work since relief work. Now in receipt of out-door relief.
- No. 7. Foundry labourer. - - No work since relief work. Formerly in Friendly Society (ran out six years ago). Right hand injured years ago. Daughter goes out cleaning.
- No. 8. Labourer - - No work since relief work. Wife in workhouse. "Man living anywhere."
- No. 9. Labourer - - No work alleged since Easter 1892 except relief work. Wife does washing, two sons work as errand-boy and in brass-foundry. Said to keep a lodging-house.
- No. 10. Borer - - Unfavourably known to relieving officer. Statements questionable.
- No. 11. Labourer - - Has been out of work 10 weeks since relief work. Wife works at washing and cleaning. Man belongs to friendly society and wife to sick club.
- No. 12. Labourer - - Has been out of work for two years. Mother supports him by making pies.
- No. 13. Labourer - - Has had only three weeks' work since relief work. Sister keeps him.
- No. 14. Cloth-dresser - - Out of work a long time before relief works and was in jail for debt last autumn, the wife being on the poor law. She used to work at "finishing," but has been very slack lately. They have been ejected.
- No. 15. Labourer - - No work since relief works. Never belonged to club or trade society.
- No. 16. Labourer - - Out of work off and on for a year before relief work. No trade society or club.

- | | |
|-----------------------|--|
| No. 17. Labourer - | - No work since relief work or for a long time before. Sister lets him stay with her. Has a mother to keep. |
| No. 18. Casemaker | - Only 14 days' work since relief works. No club or trade society. |
| No. 19. Labourer - | - No further information. |
| No. 20. Labourer - | - "Out of work" for two or three years. No club or trade society. |
| No. 21. Navvy - | - No work since relief works. Seemed a loafer. |
| No. 22. Striker - | - No work since relief works. No club or trade society. |
| No. 23. Mechanic- | - Had one job since relief work. Wife does washing, &c. They support a grandmother. |
| No. 24. Cloth dresser | - No work since relief work. No club or trade society (except burial club). Wife does washing when well; daughter does tailoring. |
| No. 25. Labourer - | - No work since relief work or for eight months before. Wife goes to rag-warehouse. |
| No. 26. Fitter - | - No work since relief work, or "for two years before." |
| No. 27. Labourer - | - Was employed on relief work up to a week ago. Since then out of work. Was ill for four years. Formerly belonged to friendly society (ran out). Daughter tailoress. |

The above summary tells its own tale. So far as the particulars supplied are trustworthy (and it must be allowed that in some cases they may be somewhat inexact), it appears that at least 16 out of the 27 found to be still unemployed have had no work since the closing of the relief works. The greater number of them appear to belong to a class who usually try to get some advantage from any scheme of relief or charity which happens to be available, but to whom, as a rule, it is of no lasting benefit. On the other hand, among those who were found to be working at their own trades a certain number may have been considerably benefited by the temporary provision of work during a slack period.

The consequences, however, that would follow if winter relief works became a regularly established institution in such a centre as Leeds, and were counted upon as a readily available resource, are very serious to contemplate.

Liverpool.

The plan of relief works adopted by the Liverpool Corporation differed from that employed elsewhere. The exceptional scarcity of employment and the causes that led to it have been described on p. 184, where an account has been given of the "Association of the unemployed" which was formed in the early spring, and

which opened a labour registry in Hunter Street, on which some 3,770 names were entered. The greater number of those whose names were thus entered were either unassisted or relieved through the agency of the Liverpool Central Relief Society. About 450 however had a few days' work (on the average about six days for each man) provided through the agency of the Corporation, which, partly in consequence of the Local Government Board circular, resolved in March to carry out at once some excavating work in Pall Mall. The Corporation did not employ labourers directly, but contracted with the chairman and secretary of the association of the unemployed, to provide local "unemployed" labour to carry out the work at a fixed piece rate of 8d. per cubic yard.

The agreement is set forth at length in the following letters from the Corporation Surveyor to the Secretary of the Association of the unemployed :—

SURPLUS LAND, PALL MALL.

Municipal Offices, Liverpool,

March 6th, 1893.

DEAR SIR,

CONFIRMING our conversation of Saturday last, the Corporation are agreeable to the following terms and conditions in regard to the removal of their surplus land in Pall Mall by the unemployed, viz. :

The price to be paid by the Corporation to be at the rate of 8d. per cubic yard, this price to represent all labour in excavating, and the filling up of the carts, &c., the Corporation or their representative providing carts, horses, and all the necessary plant and tackle.

The men employed to work to such levels as shall be fixed by the Corporation.

All plankings for the drawing on of carts, and the wheeling of barrows, &c. to be laid down by your men as shall be directed, the Corporation or their representative providing no labour whatever.

The work to be measured weekly by a representative from the Corporation, and in the event of any dispute arising on this head, the matter to be referred to a competent local surveyor to be previously agreed upon, whose decision shall be final and binding.

The Corporation not to be bound to supply carts after 12 o'clock noon on Saturdays, and 4.30 p.m. on the other week days.

The amount due for work done to be paid by the Corporation weekly, to Mr. . . . and yourself as Chairman and Secretary of the Employment Bureau.

The Corporation desire that the men employed by you on this work, shall be local workmen who are resident within the city boundary.

Kindly inform me in writing, whether you accept the terms and conditions herein contained in order that I may make arrangements in respect of the cartage, &c., at once, so that no time may be lost in commencing the work.

Yours truly,

(Signed)

Corporation Surveyor.

Mr. . . .
Secretary Employment Bureau,
57, Hunter Street.

SURPLUS LAND, PALL MALL.

Municipal Offices, Liverpool.

March 8th, 1893.

DEAR SIR,

IN addition to the terms mentioned in my letter of the 6th instant, I propose that Mr. . . . and yourself shall be considered as the contractors for the work.

All money which is payable by the Corporation for work executed shall be paid to Mr. . . . , Mr. . . . and yourself, whose receipt shall be a full discharge for the Corporation, these three gentlemen being responsible to the workmen for their wages. It is clearly understood that the Corporation do not employ the men and are not liable for their wages. It is to be agreed that only men resident in the city, and who are now unemployed, shall be engaged on the work, and that the Corporation undertake no liability for any accident happening. That the work shall be so arranged that the other contractors, Messrs. . . . who are supplying the horses and carts and plant, shall not have their horses and carts kept waiting by reason of there not being sufficient material to fill the carts.

Mr. . . . and yourself to undertake to complete the whole of the work with all reasonable dispatch; and if the Corporation find that the work is being unnecessarily delayed they may at any time, on giving three months' notice, stop the work and put an end to this arrangement.

Kindly confirm these terms.

Yours truly,

(Signed)

Mr. . . .
57, Hunter Street,

The piece-rate agreed upon would in the opinion of the surveyor, have enabled an ordinary skilled navvy to earn 7s. to 8s. a day. It was purposely fixed high in order to give a chance to the inexperienced and physically unfit labourers who were likely to be provided.

Only about 60 men could be employed on the Pall Mall works at the same time, and the smallness of the number required excited some dissatisfaction among those who attended the meetings of the unemployed. It was however arranged that relays of "unemployed" should work a week at a time in order to make the work go further. No sifting or selection was attempted, the chairman of the open air meeting each week calling out the names in order as they appeared on the register, passing over absentees and continuing until the required number of responses was met with.

The total amount earned each week according to the piece-rate agreed upon was paid over to the representatives of the unemployed and by them divided equally among those who had been at work. The daily earnings of the men arrived at in this way varied from 2s. 6d. to 4s. 3d. in different weeks.

Early in the work a difficulty arose owing to some of the unemployed refusing to begin work before 7 o'clock, whereas the contractors' men with the carts began at 6.15. The men were at last persuaded to fall in with the contractor's arrangements.

Altogether the relief works were open for about seven weeks. Owing to the nature of the financial arrangement made, the efficiency of the labour can be precisely estimated by the daily earnings given above. Judged in this way it would appear to have been about half as efficient as the labour of ordinary navvies.

The relief work, given as it was without discrimination, could only have touched the merest fringe of Liverpool distress. It amounted in all to one week's work for about 12 per cent. taken at random of the men registered as "unemployed".

During the past summer, since the closing of the Corporation relief works, a movement has been on foot in Liverpool to form a permanent organisation of a representative character to deal in the winter with distress caused by want of employment. The steps already taken have included the inquiries as to the extent of want of employment in various trades, and the appointment of a committee to draw up a scheme of action.*

Glasgow.

In Glasgow the depression in the Iron and Shipbuilding trades produced a considerable amount of distress during the autumn and winter.

Accordingly on December 2nd a joint committee was appointed by the Lord Provost and the Magistrates to inquire into the character of the distress and to devise means of relieving it, so far as it arose from scarcity of work, by the provision of employment. An office was opened and men out of employment were invited to apply.

The questions then asked were those set forth in the schedule given on the next page, and the truth of the answers was verified by inquiry conducted in co-operation with the Charity Organisation Society.

The inquiry was partly carried out by investigation officers, but where considered necessary the Committee interviewed the applicants personally.

The Register was open from December 6th, 1892, up to March 4th, 1893, during which period a total number of 2,801 names of applicants for employment were registered. This number was reduced by the inquiries to 1,251, which was, therefore, the number of unemployed persons provided with temporary work. The following form of inquiry was used:—

* Since this was written this committee has made a report.

No. .

GLASGOW UNEMPLOYED RELIEF FUND, 1892-93.

FORM OF APPLICATION for relief, with Recommendation, to be filled up
as fully as possible.

Any additional information likely to be of use to the Committee in
guiding them in fixing Relief is requested.

All Forms to be sent in to the Secretary, 33, College Street.

Name of Applicant, . . .	
Address of Applicant, . . .	
How long resident in Glasgow . . .	
Address of last Residence, . . .	
Age of Applicant, . . .	
Trade or Occupation, . . .	
Where last Employed, . . .	
How long with last Employers, . . .	
Weekly Wage when last employed, . . .	
When paid off, and why, . . .	
Married, . . .	
Number and Ages of Members of Family, . . .	
Members of Family at present employed. Give Names and Ages with Weekly earnings of each, . . .	
If single—Number, Ages, and Relationship of Dependants, if any, . . .	
If Member of Trade, Friendly, or other Society, state weekly Allowance, . . .	
Address of Secretary of Do., . . .	
Note of any other source of income, . . .	
Church, Chapel, or Mission with which Applicant is connected, . . .	
Rent and Size of Present House, . . .	
Address of House for which Taxes were paid last year, . . .	
Shown Receipts, . . .	

REPORT BY INSPECTOR—

Date, _____ *Signed,* _____

ADJUDICATION BY INSPECTOR OR COMMITTEE :—

Date, _____ *Signed,* _____

The following is a summary of the alleged previous employments of those registered :—

Building Trades :—				
Brickworkers	-	-	-	2
Bricklayers	-	-	-	2
Masons	-	-	-	7
Carpenters and Joiners	-	-	-	17
Plumbers	-	-	-	4
Plasterer	-	-	-	1
Slaters	-	-	-	10
Painters	-	-	-	64
Marble Cutters	-	-	-	3
Builders' and Contractors' Labourers	-	-	-	56
Mining	-	-	-	7
Engineering and Metal Trades :—				
Engineers, Fitters, &c.	-	-	-	236
Boiler Makers and Iron Shipbuilders	-	-	-	98
Ironfounders	-	-	-	103
Blacksmiths, Hammermen, &c.	-	-	-	150
Foundry Labourers	-	-	-	34
Others	-	-	-	38
Shipbuilders' Labourers	-	-	-	10
Woodwork and Furniture Trades :—				
Coopers	-	-	-	3
Cabinet Makers, &c.	-	-	-	10
Carriage Builders	-	-	-	3
Sawyers	-	-	-	9
Others	-	-	-	14
Printing, &c.	-	-	-	7
Leather and Fur Trades	-	-	-	13
Textile Trades :—				
Weavers, &c.	-	-	-	63
Bleachers, Dyers, &c.	-	-	-	18
Others	-	-	-	15
Clothing Trades :—				
Tailors	-	-	-	18
Boots and Shoes	-	-	-	19
Food, Drink and Tobacco (preparation of)	-	-	-	19
Engine Drivers, Stokers, &c.	-	-	-	30
Railway Employés	-	-	-	4
Miscellaneous (skilled)	-	-	-	32
Carmen and Transport	-	-	-	50
Retail Tradesmen	-	-	-	5
General Labourers	-	-	-	1,580
Clerks and Warehousemen	-	-	-	9
Seamen	-	-	-	2
Porters and Messengers	-	-	-	7
Others unspecified	-	-	-	19
Total				<u>2,801</u>

The works opened on December 8th, when 87 men were engaged, and the numbers simultaneously employed increased to a maximum of 870 on December 17th.

The men were employed at Ruchill Park and Springburn Park ; the work at the former being mostly stonebreaking, and at the latter trenching and digging. They were employed six days a week and 6½ to 7 hours a day. They were paid 1s. a day in cash, with an extra shilling on Saturday for those who had not been absent more than one day in the week and had had leave of absence on that day. Breakfast and dinner were also provided for the men. Certain cases of special poverty and distress were specially dealt with during the progress of the work, grants of clothing, blankets and money being made through the Charity Organisation Society to 80 or 90 families.

The works at Ruchill and Springburn met with very different degrees of success. Stonebreaking was found too difficult and skilled a form of work for the class of men employed, and the loss upon it was far greater than in the case of the digging and trenching at Springburn. This is well brought out by the following financial statement based on figures published by the Committee :—

	Ruchill.	Springburn.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Amount paid in wages - - - -	1,395 17 11½	819 15 8
Amount spent on food - - - -	300 7 0½	197 2 2½
Total expended (exclusive of miscellaneous and office expenditure).	1,596 5 0	1,016 17 10½
Value of work performed - - - -	407 9 4	571 3 10
Loss - - - -	1,188 15 8	445 14 0½
Loss per cent. of the total expenditure - -	74	44

The actual loss was reduced by the sale of tools, &c.

It became clear to the Committee during the progress of the work that a large number of the men employed were those whose "distress, though it might be real enough, was the result of habits which would produce poverty and suffering in any case," and the above financial statement makes it evident that in spite of the comparatively low scale of wages the labour was so inefficient that the result was a large loss.

After 10 weeks' operations therefore the Committee changed the system from time work to piece work (stonebreaking at 2s. per cubic yard and digging at 9d. per cubic yard). The result

was to reduce largely the number at work, which had already begun to decline, the labour-market being in a more prosperous condition. The abrupt falling off is shown by the following statement, showing the average number employed in each week during which the works were in progress. The statement is compiled from materials published in the Committee's report :—

Period.						Average Number of Men employed.
Day Work	Week ending Dec.	10th, 1892	-	-	-	255
	"	" 17th "	-	-	-	349
	"	" 24th "	-	-	-	504
	"	" 31st "	-	-	-	524
	"	Jan. 7th 1893	-	-	-	491
	"	" 14th "	-	-	-	561
	"	" 21st "	-	-	-	578
	"	" 28th "	-	-	-	610
	"	Feb. 4th "	-	-	-	584
Piece- work.	"	" 11th "	-	-	-	560
	"	" 18th "	-	-	-	177
	"	" 25th "	-	-	-	114
	"	March 4th "	-	-	-	75

Nothing could be more significant of the character of the labour employed, than the rapid decline of numbers after the change from time to piece-work, in spite of the high piece rate offered and the low wages hitherto paid to day labourers. The works were entirely closed on March 4th.

The entire expenditure on the works, including office expenses, purchase of tools, &c., amounted to 3,103*l.* 6*s.*; against which is to be set 978*l.* 13*s.* 2*d.* the value of work done, 23*l.* 2*s.* realised by sale of tools, and 400*l.* the value of plant in store. The net loss is thus stated as 1,701*l.* 10*s.* 10*d.*

CONCLUDING SUMMARY.

Many of the schemes described in the present chapter cannot be said to have met with a great measure of success. Something doubtless has been done to tide over a period when employment has been slack, but evidence is not wanting that the provision of work has often been most largely taken advantage of by a class of men of whom Mr. Charles Booth has said, "lack of work is not really the disease with them and the mere provision of it is, therefore, useless as a cure."* In one important case in which it has been possible to inquire into the present position of some of those assisted by the relief works, the result has not been encouraging; while in another case in which the genuine character of the willingness of

* "Labour and Life of the People," Vol. I., p. 149.

the men to work was tested during the progress of the scheme by a change from time to piece-work, the result was to reduce the number employed to less than one-third, in spite of the fact that the time rate was low and the piece rate high.

It is not claimed on behalf of any of the schemes hitherto described that they have proved a permanent cure for the evils of want of employment; they were not in fact, for the most part, regarded in this light by their promoters.

The conclusions to be drawn from the experiments of so many local authorities during the past winter are therefore largely negative. It appears, for example, to be conclusively shown (as was indeed known already to those familiar with the subject) that the offer of work without discrimination to all applicants is likely to attract large numbers of a class for whom it is unlikely to be of permanent benefit. Many (though not all) of the local authorities who carried out relief works during the past winter were sufficiently alive to this fact to attempt some kind of sifting process, though the tests applied were not always of a very searching character. It would appear, moreover, that the inquiry was usually merely directed to ascertain fitness for employment on the relief works, and did not extend to the question of, the possibility of permanent assistance. In the view of many of those whose experience in these matters is the greatest, the relative importance of the relief works and of the inquiry should be reversed if any permanent good is sought for: the relief-work being looked on as one means out of many of ascertaining fitness for permanent assistance, instead of the inquiry being looked on merely as a means of ascertaining fitness for temporary relief-work. If this view is sound the relief work would be regarded essentially as a labour test, although provided in the form of employment for wages.

Some persons have objected to stringent inquiry as inquisitorial, and, doubtless, such inquiry needs much tact and judgment. Perhaps, however, the evils which have resulted from its absence or insufficiency may be considered to outweigh any objections of this kind. It does not appear that the mere test of work, in any form in which it is likely to be applied, is a complete or satisfactory substitute for inquiry, if the permanent assistance of the individual be the ultimate object kept in view.

Secondly, it would appear that the success or otherwise of the relief works themselves is very largely a question of supervision and administration. More foremen and gangers, and more careful (though not harsher) discipline seem to be required than on ordinary work, whereas, in practice there is often a tendency for the management to be less strict.

Thirdly, if we regard the provision of work as a test of willingness to labour, it would appear that other things being equal the best shape which it can take is that which shall provide the most effective test for the purpose. Now the most searching of tests appears to be *continuity of employment*. Loafers and

tramps are not unwilling to do a couple of days' work—even hard work; and many who will work for weeks together three days in each week, would be weeded out if they were compelled to work every day. This being so, schemes which merely provide a few days' work for a large number of men in successive relays are of all others the most likely to be abused. They offer work in the form which exactly suits those who are unwilling to submit to continuous exertion, while doing very little for those really in distress. The plan of employing men in two shifts—three days a week each—is recommended on the ground that it gives them a chance to look out for work during the rest of the week, but against this very real advantage must be set the encouragement offered to loafers by an arrangement which falls in with their habits.

To sum up, the special danger which temporary schemes of municipal employment have to face is that they may fail to attract the class of unemployed whose distress is merely caused by temporary difficulties over which the individuals have no control, while they are unlikely to be organised and administered with sufficient completeness and elasticity to enable them to be of service for the lasting assistance or reformation of the chronically idle and incapable.

Some discussion of the place which relief works should occupy in a well-considered plan for dealing with distress caused by want of employment has been already given in the chapter treating of the work of the Charity Organisation Society and similar agencies, and a detailed account is given in the following chapter of the working of a scheme in which an attempt was made, so far as possible, to avoid some of the dangers which have been pointed out above.

(iii.) THE RELIEF SCHEME OF THE MANSION HOUSE CONFERENCE (1892-3).

In the last chapter a description has been given of the various efforts made by local authorities, vestries, and boards of works in London and elsewhere to assist the unemployed by providing work. The work of this nature undertaken directly by the London County Council amounted to very little, but the Council lent its aid to the carrying out of the scheme of relief of the Mansion House Conference, which still remains to be noticed. Inasmuch as this scheme appears to have been among the most carefully devised and the most fully recorded of all the undertakings of last winter noticed in the present volume, it has been thought advisable to describe it in greater detail than most of the other schemes.

The Mansion House Conference originated in an informal Committee, which was constituted during the autumn of 1892 to inquire into the alleged prevalence of distress owing to scarcity of employment in East London. The Committee was established by the residents at Toynbee Hall in Whitechapel, and included some prominent members of local trade societies, besides representatives of the Charity Organisation Society and other persons specially conversant with local industrial conditions or the methods of relieving distress.

At first the work of the Committee was one of inquiry, the result being to show that in certain districts of East London, where considerable numbers of waterside labourers reside, acute distress was being felt among the less efficient class of casual dock labourers, owing to the re-organisation of the system of employment at the docks managed by the London and India Docks Joint Committee.

During the past two years the Joint Committee, which manages the London, St. Katharine's, East and West India, Victoria and Albert, and Tilbury Docks, besides the up-town warehouses, have been making a systematic attempt to reduce the fluctuations of employment by increasing so far as practicable the permanent staff, and classifying the rest of the labourers employed in two classes ("A" and "B"), according to their efficiency and steadiness. The object aimed at is that all the permanent staff shall be employed before any casual labour is taken on, that all "A" men who apply shall have preference over "B" men, and all "B" men over the unclassified army of casuals who do not come within any of these groups. Of late a further step has been taken by making "A" and "B" tickets available under certain conditions at more than one "taking-on place," so as to equalise purely local fluctuations in the demand for dock labour along the river. The introduction of these changes has been attended with great difficulties, and the new system has only lately got into working order. It does not of course touch the deep-seated sources of irregularity of work at the docks which spring from the seasonal

character of various branches of trade, *e.g.*, the freezing of the Baltic, or similar causes tending to produce fluctuations in the total volume of employment offered from time to time by the docks. But in former days the irregularity of employment as affecting the individual dock labourer was out of all proportion to the necessary irregularity due to these fluctuations. The permanent staff being small, a certain amount of work, which was itself regular in character, was in fact performed on the purely casual system, being scrambled for by an excessive number of unclassified labourers among whom it was divided on no systematic plan. This cause of irregularity is suppressed in part at least by the re-organisation of employment.

The tendency of the new system is, therefore, clearly in the direction of increasing the regularity of dock labour. So far as it is carried out, the docks will cease to be centres of attraction for the residual labour crowded out of other trades. But the process of "de-casualisation" has naturally been accompanied by temporary distress. In proportion as the work to be had at the docks has been more and more concentrated in the hands of permanent or quasi-permanent labourers, the total field of employment, *i.e.*, the total number of labourers who can draw some kind of subsistence or partial subsistence from dock labour, has necessarily contracted. The Joint Committee now employs 1,650 permanent labourers, 1,950 "A" men, and 2,600 "B" men. Theoretically, therefore, if all these men were in their right places applying for work, no man below "B" rank would have a chance of employment except on days when more than all these 6,200 men are employed, of which during the first nine months of the present year (1898) there have only been 27. As a matter of fact, owing to local fluctuations, and the failure of a certain number of "A" or "B" men through sickness, idleness, or other causes, to apply for work, a certain but diminishing number of casual labourers are still taken on, even when the volume of employment falls below the above figure. Virtually, however, a considerable number of the more inefficient casual labourers have found their employment gone.

It was this class of displaced labour which alone was dealt with by the Committee of Inquiry here described, which was merged in a Mansion House Committee with the Lord Mayor as Chairman.

The scheme subsequently adopted is therefore of special interest, as having been directed not to deal vaguely with want of employment generally (which, as has been shown in previous chapters, is an infinitely varied phenomenon), but to deal with a certain limited class of cases of want of employment due to a well-known and specific cause. A fund was raised by the Lord Mayor, and the London County Council allowed the use, for the purpose of test work, of about 40 acres of waste land adjoining the Abbey Mills pumping station at Stratford, which it is hoped ultimately to use for allotments, but on which at

present the Council has no power to incur expenditure. The Committee began active operations early in January of the present year.

Besides the restriction of the operation of the scheme to casual dock labourers, it was further limited to those who had lived for at least a year within a certain defined area, i.e., the Poor Law Unions of Stepney, Poplar, St. George's-in-the-East, and Mile End Old Town, which include a population of nearly 378,000, and adjoin the river. The shaded portion of the following map shows roughly the limits of the area dealt with :—



The scope of the scheme was yet further defined and limited by several restrictions. (1.) In order to deal primarily with the most acute cases of distress it was decided to admit as a rule only married men. A few cases of single men with dependent relatives living in the same house were the only exceptions. (2.) The plan being to deal strictly with *local* distress, all applicants whose last address was a shelter or common lodging-house were rejected. (3.) The object being to deal not with chronic poverty due to old age but with cases of able-bodied labourers out of work, no cases of men over 65 were admitted. The great bulk

of those dealt with were under 55, as is shown in the table given on p. 244.

Applicants for assistance who were not ruled out by the above restrictions, and whose cases appeared *prima facie* to fall within the scope of the Committee's operations, were asked certain questions specified on the form reprinted on pp. 262 and 263, which is practically identical with the inquiry forms employed by the Charity Organisation Society. Of a total of 716 applicants, 372 cases were inquired into fully in this way. The accounts given by the applicant were so far as practicable verified by reference to the previous employer, the persons given as references, the clergyman of the parish, the relieving officer, and the local committee of the Charity Organisation Society, or some of these, and by a visit by a paid agent of the Committee to the applicant's address.

Seventy applicants were rejected by this sifting process as fraudulent, physically unfit for employment, or ineligible through drunkenness or other conspicuous defects of character or for other causes, and 22 other cases were withdrawn without relief being offered, the applicant finding work for himself, not appearing to answer inquiries, or for other reasons. The remainder, with few exceptions, were offered a fortnight's digging work on the land at Abbey Mills. This work was controlled by a superintendent recommended by the Metropolitan Public Gardens' Association, who had had previous experience in the laying-out of estates, and two "gangsters." A total of about 130 men worked at the same time on the land. They worked for eight hours a day (five hours on Saturday), and were paid at the rate of 6d. per hour, the ordinary rate for unskilled labour in the district.

Each man received a non-transferable ticket, on the back of which the conditions of employment were stated as follows:—

The work given by this Committee is only temporary, and this ticket is not available beyond the week in which it is issued.

RULES.

1. The wages will be 6d. an hour for a day of 8 hours (8 a.m. to 12 a.m., and 1 p.m. to 5 p.m.). No man taken on after 8 a.m.
2. No pay for meal-time.
3. No smoking allowed while at work.
4. The foreman has authority to discharge any man at once for idleness or bad conduct.
5. This ticket must be given to the foreman at the end of the week.

By Order,

} *Hon. Secs.*

The following were the forms of pay sheet and time sheet employed:—

PAY SHEET.					
NAME	Hours.	Rate of Pay at	£	s.	d.
Total - - £					
Ganger's signature _____					

WORKMAN'S TIME SHEET.		
Name _____		
Week ending _____ 189		
Day of Week.	Particulars of Work.	Hours.
Monday - -		
Tuesday - -		
Wednesday - -		
Thursday - -		
Friday - -		
Saturday - -		
Total - - £		
Foreman's signature _____		

The supervision was strict, and at the end of the fortnight the superintendent reported to the Committee as to the character of

the work and conduct of each man employed. The work was regarded not as an end in itself, but as a temporary and preliminary measure, which had the advantage of testing each man's capacity and willingness to work, while the earnings provided for his immediate necessities, and to some extent restored his "stamina" and physique, which had in most cases been greatly reduced by underfeeding and distress. Each man was instructed to review his own position carefully during this fortnight, and if possible to be prepared at the end to make some definite suggestion to the Committee as to the manner in which he could be permanently assisted. For this purpose each man appeared before the Committee at the end of the period of work to be finally dealt with. Some proved unhelpable, some were emigrated or migrated, some were provided with "B" tickets at the docks, and some who had definite work in prospect were assisted by provision of tools or other equipment, or an extension of time at Abbey Mills. The relief works at Abbey Mills were open for seven weeks.

Before going in detail into the manner in which the men were finally disposed of, it may be well to give a clearer idea of the character of the material dealt with by the Committee, as shown by an elaborate analysis of the case-papers which have for that purpose been placed at the disposal of the Labour Department.

The following table gives a general classification of the applicants whose cases were examined, according to the mode in which they were dealt with in the first place by the Committee:—

I.—RELIEF WORK not offered.

a. Ineligible through drunkenness or other faults of character	-	-	-	31	} 96
b. Ineligible through physical unfitness	-	-	-	7	
c. Not within scope of Committee for other causes	-	-	-	31	
d. Application withdrawn	-	-	-	22	
e. Assisted without being offered relief work—					
Reinstated in Trade Societies	-	-	-	4	}
Emigrated	-	-	-	1	

II.—RELIEF WORK offered.

a. Relief work refused (man getting work)	-	12	} 52
b. " " (other causes)	-	11	
c. Man dismissed from relief work for insubordination or bad conduct	-	25	
d. Man dismissed from relief work for incompetence or physical unfitness	-	4	} 224
e. Relief work accepted and performed—			
Reported to be "good"	-	124	
" " "fair"	-	59	
" " "poor" or "indifferent"	12		
No report	-	29	

Total cases inquired into	-	-	372
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The case papers give a number of interesting particulars regarding the applicants, some of which have been tabulated for this report. It is to be remembered that while some of these particulars were verified by inquiry, some (*e.g.*, birthplaces) rest as a rule on the mere statement of the applicant.

The following is an analysis of the alleged birthplaces of these 372 applicants :—

Born in London	-	-	-	-	228
„ „ other parts of England and Wales :—					
Urban	-	-	-	36	} 50
Rural	-	-	-	2	
Uncertain	-	-	-	12	
„ „ Scotland	-	-	-	-	3
„ „ Ireland	-	-	-	-	17
„ Abroad	-	-	-	-	3
Birthplace not stated	-	-	-	-	71
Total cases inquired into					<u>372</u>

So far as these statements are trustworthy, it appears the majority of the applicants (61 per cent.) were of London birth. Of the 50 persons born in other parts of England and Wales, at least 36 were born in urban districts.

The extreme paucity of applicants stated to be born in rural districts of Great Britain confirms the view, which is supported by much other evidence, that town poverty of the type which leads to demand for relief is on the whole a town product, and is not directly recruited to any large extent by influx from the country, though doubtless such influx may indirectly be to some extent a contributory cause.

As regards ages we have the following table :—

Under 25	-	-	-	-	30
25 and under 35	-	-	-	-	134
35 and under 45	-	-	-	-	122
45 and under 55	-	-	-	-	74
55 and under 65 *	-	-	-	-	12
Total cases inquired into					<u>372</u>

* Applicants over 55 were only dealt with in exceptional cases.

The alleged earnings and length of time out of work are set out in the case-papers, but on examination these items do not appear to be sufficiently trustworthy to warrant any statistical inference, though they are given for what they are worth in the accounts of the few cases which are described in detail on pp. 248-257. The alleged number of rooms occupied and the net rents paid by each applicant were to some extent verified by independent inquiry, and the following table may, therefore, be regarded as fairly trustworthy :—

STATEMENT showing ROOMS OCCUPIED and NET RENTS paid by APPLICANTS for RELIEF to MANSION HOUSE COMMITTEE, according to the statements inserted in the case-papers.

No. of Rooms occupied.	1s. and under.	Over 1s. and up to 2s.	Over 2s. and up to 3s.	Over 3s. and up to 4s.	Over 4s. and up to 5s.	Over 5s. and up to 6s.	Over 6s.	Total.
One - - -	1	35	121	33	1	1	—	192
Two - - -	—	2	23	36	32	7	3	103
Three - - -	—	—	—	7	31	5	2	45
Four - - -	—	—	—	1	4	3	5	13
No. not stated - -	—	1	—	3	3	3	6	16
Total - - -	1	38	144	80	71	19	16	369
Rent not stated - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
Total cases inquired into - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	372

Many of the applicants were greatly in arrear with their rents at the time of application, and were also encumbered with other debts and pawn tickets.

The following table shows in detail the alleged condition of the applicants as regards membership of a Trade Society. It will be seen that about one-half (189 out of 372) stated that they were or had been members of some Trade Society, but of these 99 had run out of membership or left through other causes.

It will be noticed that no fewer than 22 societies are included in the list, in spite of the limitation of applicants to dock-workers. This arises from the well-known fact that a large number of dock labourers are members of other trades.

STATEMENT showing the NUMBER of APPLICANTS for RELIEF stated to belong or to have formerly belonged to the under-mentioned TRADE SOCIETIES :—

Name of Trade Society.	No. belonging to Trade Society.		
	At Time of Application.	Formerly.	Total.
Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union	43	64	107
Amalgamated Protection Union of Hammermen, Enginemen, Machinememen, Helpers, and General Labourers.	5	6	11
Amalgamated Stevedores' Labour Protection League	7	2	9
Gas Workers' and General Labourers' National Union of Great Britain and Ireland.	7	1	8
National Amalgamated Union of Inland and Seaborne Coal Workers.	3	3	6
Navvies', Bricklayers' Labourers', and General Labourers' Union.	6	0	6
London Carmen's Trade Union	2	3	5
Amalgamated Union of General Labourers	3	1	4
Amalgamated Society of Lightermen and Watermen of the River Thames.	2	1	3
Chippers', Drillers', and Ship Fitters' Amalgamated Society of London and District.	1	2	3
National Amalgamated Union of Sailors and Firemen of Great Britain and Ireland.	0	3	3
United Union of Builders' Labourers (Bermondsey)	3	0	3
Ballast Heavers' Society	2	0	2
East London Union of Ropemakers	1	1	2
Cigar Makers' Mutual Association	0	1	1
Corrugated Iron Roofers', Door Makers', Sash Makers', and General Iron Workers' Union.	1	0	1
East London Trade Union of Painters	1	0	1
Machine Workers' United Association	0	1	1
National Amalgamated Society of Coopers	0	1	1
National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives	0	1	1
United Ship Scrapers' Protection League	1	0	1
United Society of Boiler Makers and Iron Ship Builders	0	1	1
Name not given	2	7	9
Total stated as belonging or who had belonged to a Trade Society.	90	99	189
Belonging to none, or not stated			183
Total cases inquired into			372

A somewhat smaller number (158 out of a total of 372) were stated to belong or to have belonged to a Club or Benefit Society, of whom 70 had left or run out of membership at the time of application. The following table gives details as to this point :—

STATEMENT showing NUMBER of APPLICANTS for RELIEF who were stated to belong or to have formerly belonged to the under-mentioned CLUBS or BENEFIT SOCIETIES.

Name of Club or Benefit Society.	No. stated to belong to the Society.		
	At time of Application.	Formerly.	Total.
Prudential (Life Insurance) -	34	15	49
Foresters - - -	4	12	16
Phoenix - - -	7	4	11
Royal Liver - - -	7	3	10
Oddfellows - - -	3	3	6
Hearts of Oak - - -	2	3	5
Slate Clubs - - -	8	10	18
Others - - -	23	20	43
Total stated to belong or to have belonged to a Club or Benefit Society. }	88	70	158
Belonging to none, or not stated - - -	-	-	214
Total cases inquired into - - -			372

In order to supplement these figures and throw further light on the industrial and social position of the class of persons with whom the Mansion House Committee had to deal, a fuller summary is given of the cases of 32 applicants, selected at random from the case-papers. It should again be remarked that even after such verification as was applied to the men's statements, some of the items of information must be regarded as much less precise than others. This caution applies especially to the statements of total earnings, length of time out of work, other sources of relief and debts (other than arrears of rent and pawn tickets). Nevertheless, in spite of probable inaccuracies, the pictures afforded by the *précis* of the general condition and life history of the applicants are probably sufficiently trustworthy for the purpose for which they are given here, *i.e.*, to shed light on the composition of the mass of labourers stated to be suffering from "exceptional distress."

DETAILED TABLE giving Particulars as to a certain Number for assistance to the Mansion House Committee (1892-3), and correction) as recorded in the Case-papers.

1. Index No. - - -	1.	2.	3.
2. Age - - -	43.	25.	32.
3. Birthplace - - -	Ireland.	E. London.	Chatham.
4. Family { No. living at home. Trades of other members of family living at home.	Wife. Wife, charing.	Wife, 4 children. Wife, tailoring.	Wife, 2 children. Wife, washing (formerly).
6. Earnings { Total of family when in full work. 7. Ditto at time of application.	27s. (and wife's food while charing). None.	30s. 4s.	6s. None.
8. Length of time out of work	2 weeks.	5 weeks.	13 weeks.
9. Housing { No. of Rooms occupied. 10. Rent - - -	1. 4s. 6d.	1. 3s. 3d.	1. 3s.
11. { Rent owing - 12. Debts { Other Debts - 13. { Pawn tickets -	12s. 7s. 6d. 2s.	30s. 25s. 14s. 6d.	12s. 12s. 11s.
14. Friendly Society - -	None.	(Formerly) Prudential (run out).	None.
15. Trade Society - -	(Formerly) Dockers.	(Formerly) Dockers (run out).	None.
16. Other sources of Relief -	Food from relatives.	None.	—
17. General Description -	Was agricultural labourer in Ireland. Came to London (where mother lived) 20 years ago to better himself, and worked as "casual" labourer. Since dock strike, new system at docks had made casual work hard to get.	Worked at docks 9 years. Usually idle between wool-sales. Present slackness caused by change of system at the docks.	Quite destitute and starving. Had been ill a long time.
18. Amount of "Relief work" given.	(See below.)	12 days.	12 days.
19. Superintendent's { Conduct 20. Report. { Work	Discharged for bad conduct. Good.	Good. Good.	Good. Fair.
21. Other help given - -	Cash and goods.	Coal and food tickets.	Food.
22. How finally dealt with -	Dismissed as above.	Fee paid for Steamship Workers' Union.	Family sent to town where they have relations.

(taken at random) of the Casual Dock Labourers who applied based on the Applicants' statements (subject to verification

4.	5.	6.	7.
27. London.	23. E. London.	34. E. London.	27. Not stated.
Wife. None.	2 parents, 2 uncles. Mother, washing. Uncles, labourers.	Wife. Wife, washing.	Wife, 2 children. Wife, bottle-washing.
26s. None.	(Applicant) 19s. 6d. Others not stated. —	26s. Nothing.	37s. 9s.
16 weeks.	8 weeks.	3 weeks.	4 weeks.
1. 5s. 6d.	3. 6s.	1. 3s. 6d.	2. 5s.
22s. None. 17s.	30s. None. None.	10s. 6d. None. 34s.	None. None. None.
(Formerly) Prudential (lapsed). None.	None. (Formerly) Dockers.	Loyal United Friends. —	Oddfellows. Navvies' (Branch Sec.).
Wesleyan Medical Mission.	Phoenix.	—	None.
Was employed at lead works, and contracted lead-poisoning. Lost work at docks through consequent illness. Had been in U.S.A., where he married, and would like to emigrate and join wife's relations.	Formerly worked for ship lamp maker. Discharged through slackness 24 years ago. Had since worked at the docks. Relieving officer says family had been pauperised for many years.	Got into arrears through long illness. Dock Company al- lowed half pay for 19 weeks, and he drew sick pay for 6 months from Friendly So- ciety.	Had saved 3/ when he left last em- ployer through slackness. All gone now. Wife had to pay 3s. out of 9s. she earns for mind- ing the children. Used to drink.
12 days. Not stated. Not stated. Sent to convalescent home.	12 days. Good. Fair. —	3 days (see below). Good. Good. Cash and Goods.	Relief work offered but not accepted. Applicant mean- while obtained work.
After recovery emi- grated by "Self Help" Emigration Society.	Refused emigration on ground that wanted to continue to sup- port parents.	Got work.	Got work.

DETAILED TABLE giving Particulars as to a certain Number for assistance to the Mansion House Committee (1892-3), and correction) as recorded in the Case-papers—*cont.*

1. Index No. - - -	8.	9.	10.
2. Age - - -	31.	49.	55.
3. Birthplace - - -	London.	Dover.	Ireland.
4. Family { No. living at home. Trade of other members of family living at home.	Wife, 3 children. None.	Mother. None.	Wife, 3 children. Daughter, match factory.
6. Earnings { Total of family when in full work. Ditto at time of application.	21s. Nothing.	30s. Nothing.	30s. 5s.
8. Length of time out of work	8 weeks.	6 weeks.	12 weeks.
9. Housing { No. of Rooms occupied. Rent - - -	1. 2s.	1. 4s.	2. 5s. 6d.
11. Debts { Rent owing - Other Debts - Pawn tickets -	32s. — 16s.	14s. None. 4s.	12s. — (Sold for food.)
14. Friendly Society - -	None.	(Formerly) Foresters.	None.
15. Trade Society - -	(Formerly) Dockers (run out).	(Formerly) Dockers	None.
16. Other sources of Relief -	Clearing House.	A charitable person.	Clearing House.
17. General Description -	Had been 5½ years with no regular work. Destitute.	Formerly a seaman. Since 1884 had worked at docks.	Very little work at docks for some time past. Largely living on 5s. a week earned by daughter, and on odd shillings.
18. Amount of "Relief work" given.	12 days.	(See below.)	12 days.
19. Superintendent's { Conduct Report. { Work -	Good. Good.	{ Discharged for insubordination.	{ Good. Good.
21. Other help given - -	—	Food tickets.	—
22. How finally dealt with -	"Unhelpable."	Dismissed as above.	Note given to Local Board of Works.

(taken at random) of the Casual Dock Labourers who applied based on the Applicants' statements (subject to verification

11.	12.	13.	14.
20. E. London.	55. E. London.	30. Not stated.	38. E. London.
Wife. Wife, cork-cutter.	Wife. No.	Wife, three children. —	Wife, two children. —
28s. 22s. 6d.	30s. 6s. 6d.	21s. —	30s. —
2 days.	14 weeks.	(5 years since regular work. Odd jobs.)	6 weeks.
1. 2s. 6d.	3. 6s. 6d.	1. 3s.	1. 2s. 3d.
17s. 30s. 16s.	58s. 6d. 20s. 5l.	12s. 20s. 20s.	13s. 6d. 20s. 25s.
None. None.	(Formerly) United Friends (run out). None.	(Formerly) Prudential (lapsed). None.	None. None.
Relative.	None.	Had been helped by parish and Charity Organisation Society.	None.
He and wife cork-cutters by trade. He left place because pay was too low, and had worked for a year at the wharves on and off.	Formerly employed at sugar refinery for 36 years. Lost work through slackness and removal of works.	Stationary engine driver by trade. Left 5½ years ago, and had since been a "casual" cabman. Had done other odd jobs (white-washing, &c.). Quite destitute. Would like to emigrate.	Casual dock labourer. Worked during wool sales. Affected by the re-organisation of work at the docks. Man and wife destitute and underfed. Offered work, but got fortnight's work at wool sales. Then applied for work again.
12 days. Fairly good. Fairly good. —	12 days. Good. Good. —	12 days. Good. Very poor. —	10 days. — — Food and coals.
"Nothing to be done."	No permanent help.	Refused for emigration as wanting in energy. Did not appear before Committee.	Emigration suggested.

DETAILED TABLE giving Particulars as to a certain Number for assistance to the Mansion House Committee (1892-3), and correction) as recorded in the Case-papers.

1. Index No. - - -	15.	16.
2. Age - - - -	27.	40.
3. Birthplace - - -	London.	Cork.
4. Family { No. living at home. Trades of other members of family living at home.	Wife, 1 child. Wife, bottle-washing.	Wife. —
6. Earnings { Total of family when in full work. 7. Ditto at time of application.	32s. 6d. —	24s. —
8. Length of time out of work	10 weeks.	12 weeks.
9. Housing { No. of Rooms occupied. 10. Rent - - -	1. 1s. 9d.	1. 2s. 6d.
11. { Rent owing -	5s. 3d.	51s. 6d.
12. Debts { Other Debts -	11s. to 12s.	No.
13. { Pawn tickets -	7s. 6d.	30s.
14. Friendly Society - -	None.	None.
15. Trade Society - -	(Formerly) Dockers.	(Formerly) Dockers.
16. Other sources of Relief -	Phoenix.	No.
17. General Description -	London-born Irishman, began as cork-cutter. Dismissed for slowness. Since then did odd work at docks for 10 years. Then, 2 years ago, went to sea as fireman. Left and resumed work at docks. (On inquiry application thought not to be <i>bonâ fide</i> .)	Came to England when 10 years old. Worked as brick-layers' labourer. Discharged through slackness, and worked as casual docker since. New system at docks had made his work very uncertain. Stated that he was half-starved. Got a week's work and then renewed application.
18. Amount of "Relief work" given.	12 days.	12 days.
19. Superintendent's { Conduct	—	Good.
20. Report. { Work -	—	Good.
21. Other help given - -	—	—
22. How finally dealt with -	Thought he could get a ship if he had clothes. Offered, if he brought note from mate, to take clothes out of pawn.	—

(taken at random) of the Casual Dock Labourers who applied based on the Applicants' statements (subject to verification

17.	18.	19.	20.
19. E. London.	56. E. London.	48. E. London.	34. London.
2 parents, 5 brothers and sisters. Mother, tailoress; brother (aged 16), bottler.	Wife, 2 children. Wife, washing; daughter, service.	Wife. Wife, tailoress.	Wife and 5 children. ---
44s. 10s.	9s. 2d. (and food of wife and daughter). —	12s. 6s.	30s. —
7 weeks.	3 days.	1 week.	Only odd jobs for 4 years.
2. 5s.	2. 3s.	1. 3s. 3d.	2. 2s. 6d.
5s. 2s. 6d. 50s.	57s. Uncertain. Over 80s.	None. 25s. 60s.	12s. 6d. "A few shillings." Over 30s.
Prudential. (Formerly) Carmen's.	U.K. Legal Aid Soc. (Formerly) Seamen and Firemen's.	Royal Liver. Dockers.	No. Stevedores.
Phoenix and occasional gifts from relations.	Phoenix.	Clergyman.	Priest.
First employed as street orderly boy for a year. Then at docks ever since. Thought he was affected by new system.	Seaman for 42 years. Ship laid up. Had worked at docks 6 months.	Began in engineer's shop. Skull injured by accident. Then worked as bricklayer, then being slack took to dock work. Had worked at docks 30 years off and on, and helped wife at tailor- ing.	Did barge work for lead works. Fell ill and lost place 4 years ago. Since then had only had odd jobs at docks. Fell ill again 4 months ago. Did pretty well until this winter.
(See below.) Discharged for insubordination. — —	12 days. Good. Poor. —	12 days. Good. Fair. —	3 weeks. Good. Good. —
Dismissed as above.	Entrance fee paid to Dockers' Union.	Not permanently helped; "unsatisfac- tory."	No record.

DETAILED TABLE giving Particulars as to a certain Number for assistance to the Mansion House Committee (1892-8), and correction) as recorded in the Case-papers.

1. Index No.	21.	22.
2. Age	20.	22.
3. Birthplace	E. London.	E. London.
4. Family - { No. living at home. 5. Trades of other members of family living at home.	Wife, 2 children. Wife, washing.	Wife and child. Wife, ropeworks.
6. Earnings { Total of family when in full work. 7. Ditto at time of application.	33s. —	35s. —
8. Length of time out of work	1 week.	7 weeks.
9. Housing { No. of Rooms occupied. 10. Rent	1. 2s. 9d.	1. 3s.
11. { Rent owing 12. Debts { Other Debts 13. { Pawn tickets	15s. 10s. 25s.	24s. — 30s.
14. Friendly Society	No.	No.
15. Trade Society	Carmen.	No.
16. Other sources of relief	Phoenix.	Parish.
17. General description	Formerly carman, but lost place 18 months ago through strike, and only had odd jobs at docks since. Lived on pawning and loan.	Wire-work labourer, discharged 9 months ago owing to completion of orders. Only odd jobs since. Everything pawned. Very poor.
18. Amount of "Relief work" given.	(See below.)	12 days.
19. Superintendent's { Conduct 20. Report. { Work	Discharged for insubordination. — —	Good. Good. —
21. Other help given	—	—
22. How finally dealt with	Dismissed as above.	Offered emigration, but wife refused.

taken at random) of the Casual Dock Labourers who applied based on the Applicants' statements (subject to verification

23.	24.	25.	26.
48. E. London.	21. E. London.	36. Suffolk.	38. Liverpool.
Wife, 1 child. No.	Wife, 1 child. No.	Wife, 3 children. —	Wife, 2 children. Wife, trouser finish- ing.
30s. "A few shillings."	24s. 4s. 8d.	28s. —	31s. 3s.
12 weeks.	1 week.	12 weeks.	4 weeks.
3. 5s.	1. 2s. 6d.	1. 2s. 6d.	2. 5s.
75s. — 11s.	? About 23s. Uncertain.	16s. 6d. 60s. 15s.	5s. — —
No. No.	(Formerly) Phoenix. Dockers (7 weeks in arrears).	Royal Liver. Bricklayers' La- bourers.	(Formerly) Prudential (run out). No.
Clearing House.	Chapel and relative.	Clearing House.	Children, free dinners.
Formerly employed at brushmaker's. Lost place through intro- duction of machinery. Had done odd jobs at docks, getting a few shillings a week. Attributed want of work to reorganisa- tion at docks.	First employed for 4 years at saw-mills. Then in 3 other places which he left from slackness or to better himself. Had worked lately at docks for a shipowner. Out of job because ship finished.	Came to London as alad (18 years ago). Worked in biscuit trade. Then took to miscellaneous labour at docks and elsewhere.	Went to sea when a boy at Liverpool. When aged 18 came to London on ship and stayed. Had worked at docks off and on with intervals at sea ever since.
12 days. Good. Very poor. —	12 days. Good. Fair. —	(See below.) Discharged for in- subordination. — —	12 days. — — Clothes (see below).
No permanent help.	No permanent help.	Dismissed as above.	Man got prospect of work and was pro- vided with clothes; and boots to enable him to take it.

DETAILED TABLE giving Particulars as to a certain Number for assistance to the Mansion House Committee (1892-3), and correction) as recorded in the Case-papers.

1. Index No.	27.	28.
2. Age	46.	47.
3. Birthplace	London.	London.
4. Family { No. living at home. Trades of other members of family living at home.	Wife. Wife, a little washing.	Wife, 3 children. Son, soapworks.
6. Earnings { Total of family when in full work. 7. Ditto at time of application.	(Not stated.) —	37s. 7s.
8. Length of time out of work	Got 3 hours' work last week.	Only casual jobs for last 18 months.
9. Housing { No. of Rooms occupied. 10. Rent	1. 2s.	3. 4s. 6d.
11. Debts { Rent owing 12. Other Debts 13. Pawn tickets	— — 28s. 6d.	9s. — 20s.
14. Friendly Society	None.	None.
15. Trade Society	None.	Dockers.
16. Other sources of relief	Clearing House.	—
17. General Description	Formerly employed by coal merchant, who went bankrupt. Since then had worked for 4 years as a casual docker. Had been affected by new system at docks since the strike.	Permanently employed as crane-man at wharf up to time of a strike 18 months ago. Since then only odd jobs.
18. Amount of "Relief work" given. 19. Superintendent's { Conduct 20. Report { Work 21. Other help given	(See below.) Discharged for insubordination. — —	12 days. Good. Fair. Clothing and tools (see below).
22. How finally dealt with	Dismissed as above.	Offered clothing and tools if he could get promise of work. Secured work.

(taken at random) of the Casual Dock Labourers who applied based on the Applicants' statements (subject to verification

29.	30.	31.	32.
32. London.	35. London.	36. London.	38. Middlesex.
Wife, 6 children. —	Wife, 4 children. —	Wife, 3 children. —	Wife, 4 children. —
35s. —	30s. —	19s. —	28s. —
7 weeks.	—	5 weeks.	3 weeks.
2. 5s.	3. 4s. 6d.	2. 4s. 6d.	3. 4s.
20s. About 22s. About 25s.	6s. Uncertain. None.	None. None. 40s.	14s. — 4l. to 5l.
Formerly Prudential (run out). No.	Prudential (uncertain if run out). Formerly.	No. No.	No. No.
Rectory.	Medical from Parish.	Charitable persons.	Church.
Began as engineer's labourer. Then em- igrated at 18. After 6½ years left in- valid. Had worked off and on for more than 12 firms since. Would like to emi- grate.	Worked at docks. Injured, recovered 25l. compensation from company, and set up in coal and coke business. Failed after 5 weeks.	Casual docker until 1886. Then emi- grated by C. O. S. to Canada, where he did well on railway. Returned 5 months ago owing to wife's illness. Employed on railway up to 5 weeks ago. Since then had lived by savings, sawing, and charity.	Formerly employed at ironworks till they closed 7 months ago. Worked for 3 weeks at Black- wall tunnel. Every- thing pawned.
18 days. Very good. Very good. Food.	12 days. Very good. Very good. —	18 days Good. Fair. Cash.	5 weeks Fair. Fair. —
Emigrated by help of East End Emigra- tion Fund. Assis- tance given until emigrated.	1s. given to pay en- trance fee to Union. Man spent it on food. Nothing further done.	Emigrated to Canada by help of East End Emigration Fund.	Emigrated to Canada with help of East End Emigration Fund.

Such being the class of persons for whom relief work was provided, we have now to see the mode in which the various cases were finally dealt with after the fortnight's work had been completed. A large number of cases proved unhelpable, even among those whose conduct and work at Abbey Mills had been good. They had no suggestion to make to the Committee as to the future, except that they should have more work provided. Many who were considered to be possibly suitable for emigration declined (usually throwing the responsibility for refusal on their wives); others could only make hopeless suggestions, *e.g.*, that they should be set up as hawkers or dealers—a line of life in which they had already repeatedly failed. No doubt all these men who are recorded as “not permanently helped” found the fortnight's work and wages at Abbey Mills of some temporary benefit at a very slack period of the year, and some of them were doubtless absorbed into the ranks of labour as the field of employment widened in the spring. It would be going too far to say that for them the Mansion House Scheme did nothing, for it did as much for them as most other relief agencies aim at doing at all. But as a plan for effecting a *permanent* cure of the evils from which they suffered it failed, as indeed any scheme must fail in a large proportion of cases. These men were of the class who are always in chronic poverty; they were taken up, relieved, and dropped again, most of them in much the same position as at the beginning. The cases recorded as “not permanently helped,” or of which there is no record of permanent help, numbered 129, more than one-half of the 224 persons who accepted and duly performed the relief work at Abbey Mills.

Of the remainder, 10 whose work and conduct had been satisfactory were recommended to the Dock Company for admission to the “B” list of dock labourers. In seven cases this was granted by the Company, so that a small number of the “cream” of the excluded “casuals” were thus restored to their former work. Nineteen others are recorded as having obtained work, either of their own accord or with the assistance of the Committee. In 23 other cases in which it appeared that membership of a Trade Society would be of assistance in the search for work the Committee supplied the fee for admission or re-instatement.

Many applicants desired aid to purchase or redeem from pawn tools or other equipment. This aid the Committee only gave in cases in which the applicant could bring a letter from an employer or foreman offering him work, provided he had the tools or other necessities in question. After the authenticity of this letter had been verified the necessary grant was made.

Sixteen families were emigrated to Canada, chiefly through the instrumentality of the East End Emigration Fund. Inquiries were in all cases made as to the suitability of the family for emigration before they were sent out. During the interval between the relief work and emigration most of these families were supported by the Committee, either by an extension of

employment at Abbey Mills or by direct relief. A few cases were migrated to other parts of the United Kingdom, where they had relatives or some prospect of work.

The following table shows in detail the mode in which the applicants were finally dealt with:—

STATEMENT showing the NUMBER of PERSONS, who after COMPLETION of RELIEF WORK were finally dealt with in the under-mentioned manner.

	Number.
Got work of own accord - - - -	19
„ with assistance of Committee - -	2
Helped with tools or equipment - - -	14
“B” ticket provided - - - -	7
Fee paid to Trade Society or money advanced for this purpose - - - -	23
Emigrated - - - -	16
Migrated - - - -	3
Set up as hawker or dealer - - - -	5
Temporarily assisted with money - - -	6
Passed on to another agency - - - -	1
Not permanently helped, or no record - -	128
Total persons who completed Relief Work -	224

The cost of the entire scheme and the mode in which the expenditure was distributed was approximately as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
Offices, fire, lighting, stationery, printing, postage, &c. - - -	19	4	10
Salaries and wages to officials and agents—			
Inquiry officers, &c. - - -	34	10	4
Superintendent and gangers - -	79	2	8½
Purchase of tools - - - -	83	1	5
Wages paid to “unemployed” - - -	564	16	0
Relief to “unemployed” - - - -	107	17	4
Sum expended in emigrating “unemployed” - - - -	416	17	0
Various incidental expenses - - -	9	11	6½
Total -	1,315	1	2

It has been thought desirable by the Department to ascertain so far as possible by fresh inquiry the industrial condition of those who appeared from the case-papers to have been more or

less permanently assisted by the Committee, after an interval of six months from the closing of the relief works and before the recurrence of seasonal want of employment. As much of the inquiry carried out by the Mansion House Committee was made through the Charity Organisation Society, which has special local means of knowledge and investigation, this Society has, at the request of the Department, undertaken to report on each of the 76 cases in which it appeared that the applicant got work, either as a "B" man or otherwise, was helped with tools, equipment, stock or money, or by payment of fee to a Trade Society. The secretaries of the East End Emigration fund and of the Self-Help Emigration Society have also given information as to the present position of the 16 emigrants.

Particulars have been obtained of 14 out of the 16 families emigrated to Canada. Most of these are reported to be in regular work and doing well. The following are details of their present positions as stated in their letters or gathered from inquiry:—

- A. Earning 25s. a week as driver. Sister is servant (good wages.)
- B. No steady work. Dissatisfied. (Said to be lazy.)
- C. Getting on well (earns 6s. 3d. a day.)
- D. Working as platelayers' labourer (about 35s. a week).
- E. Stableman at 33s. a week.
- F. Blacksmith. Four children have work. Family earnings for a fortnight:—Man, 3l. 17s. 6d., three elder children, 1l. 0s. 4d. each, youngest, 1s. a day.
- G. Driving stationary engine at 7l. 18s. a month.
- H. } In full work, wages not stated.
- I. }
- J. Working at forge, 4s. 2d. a day, with a prospect of a rise.
- K. Obtained and lost several places in succession. Last heard of in work.
- L. Employed in iron works. Stated to be comfortable.
- M. Employed as general labourer.
- N. Found work, nature not stated.

The contrast between the wages stated above in several cases and the precarious position which the same men occupied in East London previous to emigration is very striking, but enough time, however, has not yet elapsed to make any final judgment possible.

Of the remaining 76 persons who were assisted to find work, provided with help in money, clothes, tools, or equipment, reinstated in trade societies, or set up as hawkers, 14 could not be traced owing to removal, when the inquiry was made (in September, 1893), and one was found to have died.

Of these, five had been set up as hawkers or dealers, of whom four had failed and returned to casual work, and one was still hawking but not doing well. This form of assistance appears therefore to stand condemned.

Twenty-three had been reinstated in trade societies, or received money to enable them to pay the fees. The money advanced to pay the fee was misapplied in three cases. Of the 20 actually reinstated eight appear to have again run out, while 12 are stated to be still members, though some are perhaps in arrears. Information obtained as to the present position of 18 out of the 23 appears to show that seven of the whole number have improved their position. Owing, however, to the depression in trade the societies could give them little help in obtaining work. Of the seven men who obtained "B" tickets at the docks, one could not be traced and owing to the slackness which has since prevailed at the riverside the position of the other six has remained precarious. Still, being on the "B" list, they will probably get their share of employment when dock work revives, and in this sense they have improved their position. Of 15 men traced (out of 19) who had obtained work of their own accord at the conclusion of the relief work, five appear to have improved their position, nine to be no better off, while one has died. The two men for whom work was found by the Committee are still employed. Of the five men traced (out of six) who were assisted with money, three appear to be doing well. Of the 11 men traced (out of 14) who were helped with clothes, tools, &c., having already a definite prospect of employment, four seem to have improved their position, six to be in much the same condition as before, and the remaining one is in the workhouse. A very small proportion of the whole number appear to have since applied for relief to the poor law authorities or the Charity Organisation Society.

Of course a certain number of those entered as "not permanently helped" have probably also improved their position in a greater or less degree.

If the proportion of cases permanently assisted appears small, it may at least be safely assumed that the results of a carefully planned scheme like that under consideration are likely to be more favourable than those of more loosely managed relief works; and that if it were possible to follow up the latter with equal minuteness the results would be found to be still less satisfactory.

(iv.) RECENT RELIEF WORKS IN IRELAND.

It is not proposed in this report to deal exhaustively with the various schemes and works which have been tried in Ireland from the year of the great famine (1846) up to the present time, for the relief of exceptional distress. The conditions under which for the most part these works have been undertaken have been very different from those which form the main subject of this report, seeing that the chief evils they have been designed to meet have been rather a failure of food supply than any exceptional need of employment. In this respect the periods of exceptional distress in Ireland and the measures adopted to cope with it are rather comparable to those caused by famine in India, than to the distress resulting from trade fluctuations in Great Britain. In the present report therefore the account given of Irish relief works is limited to a very brief outline of the various measures adopted since 1880 by the Irish Local Government Board and Boards of Guardians.

Three times within 12 years the necessity for establishing public relief works in Ireland or of supporting large numbers of the population in idleness has been recognised by the Local Government Board for Ireland, owing to the failure of the potato crop. In 1880 under the Relief of Distress Acts, loans were granted to landowners and to sanitary authorities on liberal terms for improvement works. Sanction was also given to similar works adopted by baronial presentment sessions; and relaxation of the poor law rules was allowed with respect to outdoor relief. At the same time an Act was passed for the supply of seed potatoes and other seeds on loan to the peasant farmers. The Local Government Board had already taken action before applying to Parliament for an indemnity. The immediate object of the Government was "the relief of unskilled labour deprived "for the moment of the means of supporting itself." They therefore considered that the loans, both in the case of improvement of land and in that of sanitary works should not be advanced for the purpose of buildings. The amount actually authorised to be expended in this manner was 1,160,000*l.*,* of which by far the greater part was lent to landlords, and used, with but few exceptions, for land improvement by drainage.

Although by these means Irish peasants were supplied with food until the next potato crop the results were not considered satisfactory,† and neither in 1886 nor in 1891 did the Government have recourse to the system of making loans to landlords to employ people on their land for relief work. The Poor Relief (Ireland) Act passed in May 1886 provided for the

* See P.P. 99 of 1881.

† See Annual Report of the Local Government Board for Ireland, 1893, p. 96.

extension of out-door relief, temporarily, to poor persons by the Board of Guardians of any union and granted special powers for relieving distress in six unions where it was exceptionally acute, viz. :—Belmullet, Clifden, Galway, Oughterard, Swineford, and Westport. In order to impose a labour test and also to enable guardians to discriminate between those really destitute and unemployed, and those who were merely poor, relief works were started. The Commissioners appointed to inquire into the manner in which the Poor Relief Act had been carried out, reported in April 1887 :—

“If the labour test which was imposed had been an efficient one, the preliminary inquiries by the Relieving Officers might, to a certain extent, have been dispensed with. But the repairs of roads are not a test of destitution or even of poverty. Such works are not of sufficiently unattractive a character to deter the whole population from seeking to participate in them and we can fully endorse the remark of [one witness], who assured us that every man in the district could be got to work on such a test. Moreover, the works in themselves were not properly carried out ; the gangers were ordinary paupers, not inclined to press hard on their neighbours, and the workmen were confident that they would not be dismissed if they did not give a fair return of labour for the relief afforded, nor get higher wages if they showed unusual skill and zeal. They worked, therefore, lazily and badly. The works laid out were of a useful character and much needed in these remote districts, but in many cases they were left in an unfinished state and even when completed they seemed, as far as we could judge, not to have been executed in a permanent or satisfactory manner.”

In February 1891 the Local Government Board reported that it appeared that :—

“Apart from the potato crop, the small farmers are well circumstanced, but they are confronted with a greater scarcity of potatoes than they have experienced for over thirty years and this fact will cause distress in each locality according to the extent to which the people rely for subsistence upon potatoes. . . . There are certain congested districts in the western counties where exceptional poverty prevails, and where the occupiers of land endeavour to live altogether on the produce of their small holdings and in these localities, where life is a struggle at the best of times, the potato is the mainstay of the people and its loss would mean a much more serious deprivation. In districts thus situated, the people are usually able to obtain food on credit during the two or three months immediately preceding the harvest, but this year credit has been demanded at a much earlier period.”

The experience of 1881 and 1886 had pointed to the conclusion that it was inexpedient to entrust Boards of Guardians with extended powers or public funds for the relief of exceptional distress and under these circumstances the Government determined to undertake the responsibility of organising and carrying out measures for the relief of the people wherever it was proved necessary to supplement the ordinary Poor Law.

The Local Government Board impressed on its inspectors that these relief works were only intended for the class of persons

whose distress was caused by the failure of the potato crop and that the ordinary Poor Law should be left to deal with the normal poverty among labourers in villages and poor persons not in occupation of land, whose distress is usually a chronic condition from time to time during the winter months. For the relief of the aged and infirm land-holders and families which had no able-bodied member capable of working, a fund was inaugurated by the Lord Lieutenant and administered by the police with the co-operation of the Local Government Board Inspectors and the Poor Law authorities. To avoid the mismanagement of 1886, seven additional Inspectors were appointed and the Boards of Guardians were instructed to appoint additional relieving officers where it was deemed necessary.

In December 1890 relief works were opened in the unions of Ballinrobe, Belmullet, Clifden, Oughterard and Westport. In the following month works were started in the unions of Bantry, Castletown, Galway, Glenties, Skibbereen and Skull, and in February in the unions of Ballina, Clonakilty, Dunfanaghy, Killala and Sligo. In March works were instituted in the unions of Castlebar and Swineford and in May in the Kenmare Union. Later on, in June, it was also found necessary to institute works in the unions of Kilrush, Boyle, Castlerea and Bawnboy.

The relief works thus initiated were in nearly every case road works. The foremen of works were non-commissioned officers and men of the Royal Engineers, whose services were lent to the Irish Government by the War Office, but some few works were supervised by competent civilians. The duty of time-keepers or gangers on the works was performed by members of the Constabulary, with the exception of the few works in Donegal where, in consequence of the circumscribed area of operations, the Local Government Board Inspector was able to exercise constant supervision and the duty could therefore be entrusted to selected labourers. Elsewhere a brief trial of the civilian ganger system convinced the Government that it was essential to make other arrangements in order to avoid some of the abuses which distinguished former relief operations. The maximum number of time-keepers employed was 436.

The scale of wages paid to labourers employed was as follows :— The male labourers were paid 1s. 2d. a day down to the 4th July (after which date the wage was 1s. a day), with lodging allowance of 1s. 6d. a week for labourers coming over five, and in some instances, four miles from their homes. The wages for women and for infirm and aged persons were fixed at 5s. a week. For a boy under 16 years of age the wage was 8d. a day; none under 14 were employed. The wages paid to owners of horses and carts, &c., varied from 2s. to 3s. 6d. a day.

In all, 161 works were undertaken, and a total sum of 128,498*l.* was expended in wages. The numbers employed

simultaneously on the works during the spring and summer, are stated as follows at intervals of four weeks:—

Date.					Number.
February 28	-	-	-	-	7,453
March 28	-	-	-	-	8,504
April 25	-	-	-	-	12,413
May 23	-	-	-	-	15,529
June 20	-	-	-	-	15,218
July 18	-	-	-	-	11,521
August 1	-	-	-	-	9,618

The amount spent on supervision was 18,890*l.*, and on tools and materials 13,182*l.*, making the total expenditure 160,570*l.*, exclusive of expenditure incurred on the hire of steamers for service on the west coast of Ireland, for the purchase of land and forestry operations thereon, for the services of Royal Engineer officers and county surveyors, for inspectors and others employed under the Land Commission and Local Government Board in connexion with the administration of the Seed Potato Supply Acts, and extra cost of works on railways attributable to relief operations.

This last item of expenditure refers to the means adopted by the Government to further the industrial development of the more backward districts of Ireland, by the extension of railway communication. Legislation had been carried out with this object, and grants had been made by Parliament. When distress threatened the inhabitants of the western districts owing to the failure of the potato crop, the construction of the light railways was pressed on and between 7,000 and 8,000 persons of the distressed population were employed, the wages paid varying from 12*s.* weekly and upwards for men, and from 7*s.* to 9*s.* for boys.

PART IV.—FOREIGN AND COLONIAL EXAMPLES.

(i.) LABOUR COLONIES ON THE CONTINENT.

[The following Report has been specially prepared for the Labour Department by Professor James Mavor, who was commissioned by the Department to visit some of the principal labour colonies on the Continent during the past summer for this purpose.]

It is proposed to give in outline an account of the growth and history of the Labour Colonies in Germany, Holland, and Belgium, with notes upon the recently established colony in France, and upon stations for the relief of the unemployed in Austria and Switzerland. The chief topics considered are:—

1. The relation of the colonies to the question of the want of employment, principally the functions of the colony in providing and in procuring work for the unemployed.
2. The classes of persons who occupy the colonies.
3. The relations of the colonies to the market for labour and to the market for goods.

The labour colonies on the Continent have been established with the view of organising the labour of the able-bodied unemployed, either temporarily, as in Germany, or permanently, as in Holland. Those who have promoted the colonies have also had in view the suppression of begging, and the direction of the offerings of the charitable into channels in which substantial benefit might be conferred on the recipients.

In forming conclusions as to the expediency of adopting such institutions in this country, it is necessary to have regard to the differences between the economic condition of England and that of the continental countries in which the labour colony system has been adopted. In these countries agriculture preponderates over industry, in England industry preponderates over agriculture. On the Continent compulsory military service absorbs the young men at the moment when they would be entering into industrial life. In England the system of voluntary enlistment has had a far smaller influence upon the labour market. There can be no doubt that, whatever may be the effect of compulsory military service upon the industrial development of a nation, as a whole, its influence upon the labour market is to thin it. Thus, from various causes, among them those just mentioned, it is probable that there is not on the Continent quite so keen a competition for employment as there is in England. Whatever interpretation may be given of the causes of the variations between the economic conditions of any one country from those of any other, it is of vital importance that these variations should be kept steadily in view in such an inquiry as this.

(a.)—THE GERMAN LABOUR COLONIES.

Growth of the Labour Colony System in Germany.

It may perhaps be said that there were three main reasons for the rise and rapid growth of the German Labour Colony System. *First*, there was the dislocation of industry, which was one of the features of the commercial collapse succeeding the inflation of trade due to the payment of the war indemnity by France, and the replacement of the material losses in which Germany was involved by the war. *Secondly*, there was the need felt by philanthropic Conservatives to offer some positive means of amelioration for the poverty-stricken to counterbalance the propaganda of the Social Democrats. *Thirdly*, there was the development of a spirit of humanitarianism. The first of these reasons made the labour colony an apparent necessity, and the two latter secured for it financial support and personal enthusiasm.

The first German labour colony was that of Wilhelmsdorf, near Bielefeld, in Westphalia. This colony was founded by the enthusiasm of Pastor von Bodelschwingh, who has during the past 15 or 16 years made Bielefeld famous as a place for the treatment of epileptic and anæmic patients, and also as the scene of a considerable experiment in the provision of workmen's houses. The Wilhelmsdorf colony was established in March 1882, and in the succeeding year was followed by Kästorf, Rickling, Friedrichswille, Dornahof, and Seyda. In 1884 five colonies were founded; in 1885, two; in 1886, four; in 1888, four; in 1889, one; in 1891, two; and in 1892, two. The total number of colonies is now 26; three of these being Roman Catholic and the remainder Protestant. These colonies are distributed throughout the German Empire.*

The system is under the control of the German Labour Colony Central Board (Centralvorstand deutscher Arbeiter-Kolonien), which has for its President Count von Zieten-Schwerin, who takes an active part in the administration. The board is composed of two representatives from each of the provinces to which the system has extended. The statutory meetings are held once a year, and are usually prolonged over two days. Reports are made by the representatives, and administrative topics and features special to one or other provincial colony are discussed.

* Province of Westphalia, 2; Hanover, 2; Schleswig-Holstein, 1; Brandenburg, 2; Württemberg, 2; Saxony, 3; Oldenburg, 1; Silesia, 2; Pomerania, 1; East Prussia, 1; Baden, 1; Hesse, 1; Rhineland, 2; Bavaria, 1; Posen, 1; Thuringia, 1; West Prussia, 1; Hamburg, 1.

The Labour Colony Central Board was founded in October 1883. The policy of the board is thus described* :—

1. The colonies are institutions of Christian charity, in which anyone who has suffered inward or outward shipwreck, or who stands in danger of so suffering, may be received and raised again. Colonists have no legal claim to the benefits of the institution.
2. All able-bodied men who are willing to work are admitted without distinction of character or religion so long as there is room.
3. Dipsomaniacs are not admitted, or, if admitted, may be expelled.†
4. The special aim of the colonies is to secure the permanent moral elevation of the colonists.
5. The house regulations of the colonies are the same throughout.
6. Board and lodging must not be in excess of the strictest requirements.
7. The scale of pay (board, lodging, and payment in cash or clothes, &c.) must be lower than the daily wage prevailing in the locality.
8. Dismissal is the only form of punishment.
9. Colonists dismissed for ill-behaviour shall not be admitted into another colony without the consent of the colony which discharged them.

The funds for the support of the colonies are obtained (a) from grants by the provincial Governments, (b) from grants by the municipalities, (c) from donations and subscriptions by members of the provincial societies, (d) from collections in the churches, (e) from house-to-house collections. Particulars of the income and expenditure of most of the Colonies will be found on pp. 306–7.

The labour colony system, consisting of several parts, is made up of several separate organisations working, so to speak, hand in hand. There are the *Verpflegungs-Stationen*, or relief stations; the *Herbergen zur Heimat*, or workmen's lodging houses; *Arbeiter Kolonien*, or labour colonies; and the *Arbeitsnachweis-Anstalten*, or labour bureaus. There are besides, the branch colonies, and a further development of labour colonies for permanent residence, and still further a system of training the superintendents of all of these at the Nazareth House at Bielefeld, at the Raurhaus, near Hamburg, and at similar institutions elsewhere.

The most important of this group of institutions are the labour colonies proper. There are 25 of these throughout Germany; 23 being agricultural colonies in country districts,

* "Protokoll über die dritte ordentliche Versammlung des Centralvorstandes deutscher Arbeiter-Kolonien," Bielefeld, 1886, p. 93; also Dr. Berthold in "Charity Organisation Review," vol. vii., p. 438.

† Intoxicating drinks are forbidden in the colonies; but drunkards are received if willing to abandon drink, and special colonies for this class are affiliated to Wilhelmsdorf.

and two being city colonies, one at Hamburg and one at Berlin. The colony at Berlin has a branch colony at Tegel, where the colonists are chiefly engaged in forestry. In addition to these 25 labour colonies which are exclusively places of temporary resort for single men or men living apart from their families, there is a "Home" colony, or place of resort for families, at Friedrich-Wilhelmsdorf, near Bremerhaven.*

There is a very copious literature, not much of it, however, of a critical order, upon the labour colony system. The statistics of the colonies are contained in the monthly organ of the central board, "*Die Arbeiter-Kolonie*," published at Gadderbaum, near Bielefeld, and in the valuable summaries of Dr. Berthold, published at intervals of two years. The annual reports of the individual colonies are also very instructive.†

The total number of persons who have entered the colonies from the foundation of the first until 30th June 1893 was 63,394, and the total number discharged was 61,334. The number of places in the colonies at the present time is 3,044.

From the foundation of the first colony until 31st March 1891‡ there were 44,807 intrants. The following statement shows the percentage number at various groups of ages § :—

	Per cent.
Under 20 years of age - - -	5·6
20-25 years of age - - -	10·5
25-30 " - - -	13·3
30-35 " - - -	15·4
35-40 " - - -	15·5
40-45 " - - -	13·5
45-50 " - - -	10·9
50-60 " - - -	12·1
60 and upwards - - -	3·2
	<hr/> 100·0

From this table it appears that 57·7 per cent. of the colonists were in the prime of life, namely, of 25 and under 45 years of age; while 16·1 per cent. were under 25 years of age, and not more than 3·2 per cent. fairly entitled to be regarded as aged.

The following figures refer to the period of two years from 1st April 1889 till 31st March 1891,|| during which 22 colonies were open :—

	Number.
Cases admitted - - -	15,425
Individual persons admitted - - -	11,088
Discharged cases - - -	13,307

* See *infra*, page 299.

† For a list of the leading publications on labour colonies, see Appendix II., page 481.

‡ Later figures of the ages for all the colonies together are not yet available.

§ Dr. Berthold, *Die deutschen Arbeiter Kolonien*, 1893, p. 119.

|| Dr. Berthold, *op. cit.*, pp. 4 and 126.

The length of stay of those who were discharged during this period will be seen from the next table, which shows the percentage number of persons that remained at the colonies for various numbers of days :—

Number of Days.				Per-centage Number of colonists.
7	-	-	-	6·1
8-14	-	-	-	4·3
15-21	-	-	-	4·3
22-35	-	-	-	8·5
36-49	-	-	-	9·4
50-63	-	-	-	8·9
64-77	-	-	-	8·5
78-105	-	-	-	13·6
106-147	-	-	-	18·6
148-203	-	-	-	10·3
204-259	-	-	-	3·6
260-315	-	-	-	1·6
316-364	-	-	-	0·8
365 and over	-	-	-	1·5
				<hr/> 100·0 <hr/>

A general regulation exists among the colonies to the effect that prolonged residence should be discouraged, and in no case should a colonist be allowed to remain longer than two years. The object of this regulation is to prevent the colonist from acquiring under the German law of settlement a domicile in the colony, which would render the commune in which the colony is situated liable for his maintenance as a pauper, should he ultimately come upon the poor roll. Although this regulation is necessarily observed in the letter, some of the colonists are nevertheless practically permanent residents. At Wilhelmsdorf, for example, six men take a fortnightly holiday every two years, and thus evade the law. So long as they make themselves useful in the colony (and such men do) there is no reason why the colony should thrust them out. After having remained away long enough to escape the provisions of the law of settlement they return to their former positions as cowkeepers or what not. This practice exists, I believe, at all the colonies, and accounts to some extent, although not to a large extent, for the frequency of re-admissions.

The practices of the colonies, however, vary considerably as to the length of time during which colonists are permitted to stay. The practice not only varies as between colony and colony, but from year to year. In some colonies there is an apparent tendency to relaxation of the rule enjoining the

expulsion of colonists as soon as possible, while in others the earlier discharges have tended to become more numerous, thus indicating an increasing stringency. Those colonies in which the first practice is observable have probably been the resort of an improving sort of colonists, while the contrary has probably been the case with those colonies which have become more and more stringent.

The following figures disclose the grounds of discharge from the colonies in four consecutive periods, and show that while the per-centage number of persons leaving at their own desire has risen considerably during recent years, the number obtaining situations direct from the colonies has steadily fallen.*

TABLE showing the CAUSES of DISCHARGE from the COLONIES during the under-mentioned periods, and the per-centage number of COLONISTS discharged from each cause.†

Cause of Discharge.	From 1st April 1885 to 31st March 1886.	From 1st April 1886 to 31st March 1887.	From 1st April 1887 to 31st March 1889.	From 1st April 1889 to 31st March 1891.
	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.
Obtained situations . . .	27·4	24·7	20·8	19·7
Own wish	54·1	57·8	60·4	64·5
Drunkenness	1·5	0·8	0·5	0·7
Laziness	1·7	1·5	1·8	1·3
Unfitness for work . . .	0·4	0·5	0·7	0·9
Bad conduct	3·5	4·1	4·4	3·7
By direction of authorities .	1·4	1·1	1·1	1·2
For sickness	2·0	2·4	2·2	2·2
Time expiry	5·6	5·1	5·5	2·2
Absconded	2·4	2·0	2·6	3·7
	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

Of 2,623 who obtained situations, 814 returned to the colonies ; and of 8,564 who left at their own desire, 3,117 came back within two years of their discharge.

The following particulars were also obtained as to the number of persons admitted—distinguishing those who had been in the colonies before—into 22 colonies between 1889 and 1891, who had previously been with or without a home.‡

* See also *infra*, p. 283.

† From Dr. Berthold, *op. cit.*, p. 129.

‡ *Ib.*, p. 143.

	With Domicile.			Without Domicile.			Gross Total.
	For the first Time.	Not for the first Time.	Total.	For the first Time.	Not for the first Time.	Total.	
Numbers	2,730	1,423	4,153	3,230	3,705	6,935	11,088
Per-centages	24.6	12.9	37.5	29.1	33.4	62.5	100

This table shows that the colonies have largely become the resort of the homeless, 62 per cent. of those admitted being so described; and that practically continuous residence is very common.

Causes of Resort to the Colonies.

Copious as are the statistics of the German colonies, and numerous as are the questions upon the "*Zahlkarten*," there are no indications as to the causes which have led the colonists to resort to the colonies. Since, however, 76 per cent. of the colonists have been in prison,* there can be little doubt that the immediate cause of resort to the colonies of three-fourths of those who go there is inability to obtain employment owing to their having been in prison. In such cases there are, of course, usually remoter causes—drunkenness, habits of thieving, irregularity, &c., which prevent discharged prisoners from getting situations, or from keeping situations when they do get them.

It is very difficult to determine, with any statistical precision, causes which react upon each other in such a way as to produce a complex result. Moreover, the narratives of the colonists themselves are frequently more romantic than veracious. They nearly always regard themselves as victims of the rapacity or coldheartedness of others. A few of them are audaciously frank in acknowledging that they alone are to blame for their appearance in such company. The police information which is obtained by the colonies is of assistance only in throwing light upon the worst cases. Sometimes this information is apparently exaggerated; men, for example, who work hard and conduct themselves well in the colony, having been described as the terror of their village. In the absence of particulars regarding the admissions to the colonies as a whole, the following table throws some light upon the causes which impel men to resort thereto.

* See page 277.

CAUSES of RESORT to the COLONY of 117 COLONISTS in Wilhelmsdorf on 7th August 1893—distinguishing the numbers of men who had undergone imprisonment from those who had not been in prison.

Causes.	Number previously in Prison.	Number who had not been in Prison.	Doubtful Cases.	Total.
Ascertained inability to obtain employment, without visible specific cause	—	2	—	2
Apparent inability to obtain employment, without visible specific cause	—	1	—	1
Ascertained inability to obtain employment owing to having been in prison	3	—	—	3
Apparent inability to obtain employment owing to having been in prison, without other visible specific cause	45	—	—	45
Drink as an ascertained specific cause	8	8	1	17
Drink and laziness as specific causes	—	1	—	1
Drink as a probable specific cause	3	1	—	4
Sent by relations,—deaf mute	—	1	—	1
„ „ owing to alleged bad conduct	1	—	—	1
Sent by parish with consent,—cripple	—	1	—	1
Sent by parish with consent,—for bad conduct	1	—	—	1
Epileptic	1	—	—	1
Bad conduct	1	—	—	1
Domestic misfortune	1	—	—	1
Domestic misfortune and sickness	—	1	—	1
Confirmed begging	1	—	—	1
Uselessness	—	1	—	1
On trial by institution (special case)	—	1	—	1
Unknown causes	—	31	2	33
	65	49	3	117
Per-centage	55·5	41·9	2·6	100·0

In the most recent issue of his valuable statistics,* Dr. Berthold complains that while the figures supplied by the colonies reveal the numbers who have undergone imprisonment prior to entry into the colonies, they do not disclose the number of those who arrive direct from prison. There is much force in this criticism, though the information may be gleaned from an examination of the *Zahlkart* or docket of each individual colonist, which reveals the place from which the colonist last came, although it does not contain a specific answer to the

* Die deutschen Arbeiter-Kolonien, Sechste Folge für die Jahre 1889-91. Berlin, 1893, p. 2.

question : Did he come direct from prison ? An examination of the books of Wilhelmsdorf, supplemented by information obtained from the officials and from the colonists themselves, convinced me that, though the number of persons arriving in the colonies direct from prison is very variable, it is unlikely to amount in the aggregate to a very large per-centage of the whole. Of the 131 colonists in Wilhelmsdorf on August 9th, 1893, the following are the particulars in this connexion :—

—	Numbers.	Per.Cent.
Previously imprisoned - -	67	51.2
Not „ „ - -	57	43.5
Doubtful cases - - -	7	5.3
	131	100.0

Those marked doubtful were new arrivals whose antecedents had not been obtained from the police ; but who professed not to have been punished by imprisonment.

Of the 67 individuals who had been imprisoned, only three arrived in the colony direct from prison. It happened, however, that I myself witnessed the arrival of two of these on the day previous to the date mentioned, there having two days before been only one man who had entered the colony direct from prison, although the large number of 65 had undergone punishment.

The 67 individuals represented 96 cases of imprisonment, thus :—

Lock-up—for drunkenness or begging -	46 cases
Prison - - - -	32 „
House of Correction - - - -	13 „
State Prison - - - -	5 „
	—
	96
	—

The order given represents the relative seriousness of the offences. No other classification of the offences can be made from the books of the colony, although particulars of a more or less trustworthy character are sometimes gained from the colonists themselves. Of those who had suffered imprisonment in prison (Gefängnis), the larger proportion had been convicted of stealing, while of those who had suffered imprisonment in the State prison, one had been convicted of a murderous assault and

another of breach of trust. The cases of punishment for police offences are the most numerous, as is shown by the following :—

TABLE showing for 22 Colonies the Number of Men who had suffered various kinds of Imprisonment before being admitted into the Colonies in the two years, 1889-91; also showing the Total Number who had not undergone Imprisonment.*

Lock-up.	Prison.	State Prison.	Imprisoned.		Prison and State Prison.	Lock-up Prison and State Prison.	Lock-up and Correction.	Total imprisoned.	Not previously imprisoned.
			Prison.	State Prison.					
3,064	1,684	125	1,650	54	201	255	784	8,417	2,671
33.0 per cent.	15.2 per cent.	1.1 per cent.	14.9 per cent.	0.5 per cent.	1.8 per cent.	2.3 per cent.	7.1 per cent.	75.9 per cent.	24.1 per cent.

This Table† brings out the broad fact that three-fourths of the colonists admitted in the two years had been imprisoned. On further analysing the totals in the foregoing Table, with a view to showing the number of times the men had been admitted into the Colonies, the following results are obtained :—

No. of Times in Colonies.	Imprisoned.									Not imprisoned.
	Lock-up.	Prison.	State Prison.	Lock-up and		Prison and State Prison.	Lock- up Prison and State Prison.	Lock- up and Correc- tion.	Total imprisoned.	
				Prison.	State Prison.					
1	1,958	897	90	614	26	115	110	353	4,163	1,793
2	747	325	15	361	13	40	67	167	1,734	606
3	383	201	16	243	7	15	24	96	965	181
4	229	112	3	160	7	13	24	60	686	96
5	152	63	1	113	1	8	13	40	400	40
6	86	34	—	66	—	3	11	25	225	27
7	43	24	—	35	—	4	2	11	119	18
8	29	9	—	18	1	1	2	3	68	4
9	15	12	—	11	—	2	2	3	45	2
10	10	4	—	10	—	—	—	3	27	2

* From Dr. Berthold's "Die Deutschen Arbeiter-Kolonien," &c., 1893, p. 65.

† *Ib.*, p. 38.

No. of Times in Colonies.	Imprisoned.									Not Imprisoned.
	Look-up.	Prison.	State Prison.	Look-up and		Prison and State Prison.	Lock-up Prison and State Prison.	Lock-up and Correc- tion.	Total imprisoned.	
				Prison.	State Prison.					
11	4	2	—	4	—	—	—	—	10	2
12	2	1	—	3	—	—	—	—	6	—
13	4	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	6	—
14	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
15	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
16	1	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	2	—
17	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
Total -	3,064	1,684	125	1,650	54	201	255	784	8,417	2,671
Per cent. -	33.0	15.2	1.1	14.9	0.5	1.8	2.3	7.1	75.9	24.1

The obvious explanations of the circumstance that so few colonists arrive at the colony direct from prison are (a) that they endeavour to secure employment, or (b) that they return to their friends for a time, or (c) that they prefer to the restrictions of a colony the free life of a tramp, which they may have by means of the *Verpflegungsstationen* or relief stations. The circumstance that they have just emerged from incarceration gives vagrancy unusual attractions for them. Vagrancy, however, sooner or later tires out the most extreme Mark Tapleyism, and the discharged prisoner, after perhaps months of wandering, finds his way ultimately to the colony.

In 1880, before the colonies were founded, the number of individuals prosecuted for vagabondage in Germany was 23,093.* In 1890, when the colonies had been in existence for eight years, this number had fallen to 13,583. This may be regarded as suggesting that the colonies and the subsidiary institutions connected with them are dealing effectively with the problem of vagrancy and begging. It would be unsafe to attribute the diminution wholly to the influence of the colonies, but it would be unfair not to acknowledge that their influence has been considerable.

The following Table shows the particulars of the decrease in the number of persons prosecuted for vagabondage during the decade 1880-90,

* "There was scarcely a day, at least in the towns, when from six to ten beggars did not call at every household begging for food, clothes, or money for a night's lodging."—Cronmeyer, *Eine Zuflucht der Elenden*, 1893, p. 32.

NUMBER of INDIVIDUALS PUNISHED with IMPRISONMENT for VAGABONDAGE in 1880 and 1890, and the per-centage decrease in 1890 as compared with 1880.*

	Number Punished.		Decrease per Cent.
	1880.	1890.	
Kingdom of—			
Prussia	15,727	8,605	45·3
Bavaria	1,994	1,370	31·3
Saxony	1,250	963	23·0
Württemberg	209	179	14·4
Grand Duchy of—			
Baden	240	188	21·7
Hesse	830	523	37·0
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	349	168	51·9
Other Grand Duchies	273	174	36·8
Duchy of—			
Brunswick	246	140	43·1
Other Duchies	190	173	8·9
Principalities	282	180	46·8
Free town of—			
Bremen	110	89	19·1
Hamburg	772	480	37·8
Lübeck	67	60	10·4
State of—			
Alsace-Lorraine	554	381	48·1
German Empire	23,063	13,583	41·2

Some adverse criticism has been made in Germany and much discouragement has been felt, because the colonies have been filled with such material. This discouragement seems, however, to be needless. The class of discharged prisoners is the class that needs help most of all and first of all.† What the nature of that help should be may be open to difference of opinion; but the fact that discharged prisoners crowd into the labour colonies may be held as proving that, in their opinion, these institutions meet their case better than any other existing institutions. It were well, therefore, frankly to recognise the function these colonies are exercising, and if it be found that there is a body of unemployed who have not suffered moral collapse, to set about providing colonies for them exclusively

* From C. von Massow, Stat. der Naturalverpflegungsstationen in Deutschland, p. 9. These statistics are taken from the public documents of each separate State.

† "Though a man may have expiated his fault in the eye of the law, he has not done so in the eye of the people. Society, stronger than the law and less merciful than the tribunal, subjects the ex-convict to a severe additional punishment. 'The chain clanks about him all his lifelong.'—Pastor Cronmeyer, *Eine Zuflucht der Elenden*, 1893, p. 6.

should the advantages of such institutions for this class outweigh the disadvantages.

As might be expected, the colonies are most fully inhabited in winter, when the conditions of life are more severe, and when out-of-door work is less easily obtained than in summer. This fact is brought out by the following table:—

TABLE showing the Number of Persons admitted into 22 Colonies during each of the months of 1890 and 1891, and the number sent away for want of room.

Months.	Admitted.		Sent away for want of room in Colonies.	
	1890.	1891.	1890.	1891.
January . . .	577	556	674	543
February . . .	474	576	684	333
March . . .	535	530	298	101
April . . .	418	612	94	10
May . . .	500	548	65	14
June . . .	513	554	64	5
July . . .	515	624	40	—
August . . .	506	602	37	8
September . . .	497	540	13	22
October . . .	913	829	116	80
November . . .	890	1,063	307	331
December . . .	635	663	1,130	463
Total . . .	6,963	7,745	3,538	1,968

The numbers of colonists who are single, or who represent themselves to be so,* very largely preponderates over those who are married. The following table shows the conjugal condition of the colonists who were admitted into 25 colonies from January to June 1893.†

Condition as to Marriage.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	Total.	Per-centage.
Single . . .	398	441	570	529	543	507	2,988	79·5
Married . . .	29	28	28	43	52	47	227	6·1
Separated . . .	23	16	27	24	30	30	150	4·0
Widowed . . .	42	45	60	65	67	53	332	8·8
Divorced . . .	9	11	8	11	9	13	61	1·6
Total . . .	501	541	693	672	701	650	3,758	100·0

* It is to be noted that police inquiries are made with the view of testing the statements made by the colonists.

† See *Die Arbeiter-Kolonie* for the respective months.

The proportion of those described as married is six per cent. only of the total admitted.

Extent to which the Colonies are reformatory.

It is impossible to obtain accurate statistics of the careers of the colonists who leave the colony never to return. This is, as shown, a steadily diminishing per-centage of the whole. Ex-colonists do not wish the fact of their having been in the colony to be known, and take pains to obliterate their traces. The varying estimates of from 5 to 25 per cent. of successes out of the numbers admitted are, therefore, not to be relied upon.

Repeated Admissions.

The repeated admission of the same persons into the German colonies constitutes one of the features of the system.* The habit of going from one colony to another, or of repeatedly applying for admission to the same colony, has produced a new type, or at all events, has resulted in a new name, the colony-bummler. To *bummel* is a verb with which the German vagabond is familiar in all its moods and tenses. Primarily it means "to loaf;" but it has come to mean not to loaf in the colony, but to arrive at it frequently, to loaf outside and then to drop into the colony at regular or irregular intervals. There are certain notorious bummlers whose visits are expected at the colonies with as regular a periodicity as the phases of the moon. One of these bummlers is a certain W—— L——, who has been an inmate of Wilhelmsdorf 19 times. He is now 58 years of age. He made his first appearance at Wilhelmsdorf on 10th December 1884, two years after the colony was founded. He remained for six weeks and then departed of his own accord. He wandered in the outside world for four months and then appeared at the colony for the second time. He remained for about two months and again departed to spend four months in begging or in some other lucrative employment. In November 1886 he again entered the colony and remained until the end of January 1887. In May 1887 he again entered to disappear on 24th June. He returned in the end of July to remain until the end of September. In November of the same year he reappeared and remained until the middle of January 1888. In June 1888 he returned and left in July. In October he returned and left in November. In May of the year following he returned and left in June. In August he returned and left in September. In December he returned and left in the middle of January 1890. In April he returned and left in May. In October he returned and remained until January 1891. In June 1891 he returned and remained until August. In September he returned and

* Relapsing is characteristic of the class with which the German Colonies deal. Out of 77,977 persons discharged from the Prussian State prisons during the past ten years, there were 63,645 cases of relapse. Of these, there were 46,461 who were imprisoned more than three times.—Cronmeyer, *Eine Zuflucht der Elenden*, p. 7.

remained until December. In January 1892 he returned and remained until March. In April 1892 he returned and remained until July. In September he returned and remained until February 1893. In March he returned, and in May he left "on the tramp," with 6s. 6d. in his pocket, the surplus of his earnings during his two months' residence in the colony. This restless person is quite a favourite. He is said to be an excellent worker, and his eccentric comings and goings are looked upon as the outcome of an amiable but incurable weakness. While in the outer world he has frequently been in conflict with the authorities, and has been punished with lock-up, prison, and correction.

Another case * H——, aged 52, appeared first at Rickling in October 1883. After leaving Rickling he visited in succession Friedrichswille, Meierei, Kästorf, and Friedrichswille a second time. Between October 1883 and March 1891 he spent 1,673 days in these colonies, or about four years and a half out of the total period of seven years and a half.

Taking the figures for the 22 colonies in 1889–91, it is found that 53·7 per cent. of the total number had been in the colonies only once, and 46·3 per cent. more than once.

Thus about one half of the colonists seek temporary relief, while one half seek frequent or continuous relief from the colonies.

An analysis of the figures for each colony during three periods shows some variation in the proportion of those who return.

TABLE showing the PER-CENTAGE PROPORTION of the INTRANTS into 21 COLONIES, in the undermentioned periods, who had previously been in the Colonies.†

—	1886-87.	1887-89.	1889-91.
Wilhelmsdorf - - - -	—	42·6	50·1
Rickling - - - -	39·1	39·4	50·6
Kästorf - - - -	45·3	55·9	53·8
Friedrichswille - - - -	41·2	46·7	54·8
Seyda - - - -	37·8	38·5	47·3
Dornahof - - - -	33·8	42·0	53·1
Dauelsberg - - - -	28·8	32·3	40·4
Karlshof - - - -	40·8	44·2	52·4
Meierei - - - -	38·1	40·9	54·7
Wunscha - - - -	31·7	31·8	39·1
Ankenbuck - - - -	29·1	42·3	41·4
Neu-Ulrichstein - - - -	21·6	32·4	41·6
Berlin - - - -	—	27·0	33·1
Lühlerheim - - - -	35·8	34·0	48·6
Schneckengrün - - - -	17·9	35·0	43·2
Elkenroth - - - -	46·3	46·7	47·0
Simonshof - - - -	—	25·2	35·4
Maria-Veen - - - -	—	54·8	53·7
Magdeburg - - - -	—	25·9	32·3
Alt-Latzig - - - -	—	25·0	42·6
Geilsdorf - - - -	—	—	48·8

* For this case and many others of similar type see Dr. Berthold, *op. cit.*, p. 144, *et seq.*

† From Dr. Berthold's *Die Deutschen Arbeiter-Kolonien*, page 64.

It would also appear from the following particulars that about a quarter of those who are discharged return within a period of two years.*

—	No. of Cases admitted into the Colonies.	No. of Persons admitted.	Per-centage of Persons discharged during the Period, who returned during the Period.
1st period of two years 1887-1889.	13,575	10,403	23·4
2nd period of two years 1889-1891.	15,425	11,088	28·1

The repeated admissions into the German colonies as disclosed by the statistics, together with such knowledge as one can obtain of the types of men that make up the ranks of the 8,000 who pass through colonies annually, show that the colonies are dealing with a body of at least 4,000 men, who are for various reasons unable to regulate their own lives on an independent basis, or who are unable to get or to keep employment under customary conditions. Although the colonists are free to go from or to stay in the colonies, when they elect to stay they must conform to the discipline imposed upon them. There thus appears to be a certain class, amounting to one half of the cases dealt with, who are willing, or who feel themselves forced, to exchange the freedom of ordinary industry without guarantee of subsistence, for the practical, though mild, slavery of the colonies with guarantee of subsistence.

The Colony as an Agency for obtaining Situations.

The per-centage of "discharges to situations," never great since the development of the colony system really began, has been steadily decreasing. From Wilhelmsdorf, during the first year of its existence, the per-centage of discharges to situations was 82·† In 1885-86, it was 28·9; in 1887-88, 27·7; in 1888-89, 28·8; and in 1889-91, 26·7.

In all the colonies the per-centage has fallen from 27·4 in 1885-86 to 19·7 in 1889-91.‡

* Dr. Berthold, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

† Cronmeyer, *op. cit.*, p. 23.

‡ See Table E. Berthold, *op. cit.*, p. 39; and remarks on this topic in Cronmeyer, *Eine Zuflucht der Elenden*, 1893, p. 33.

TABLE showing the NUMBER of PERSONS DISCHARGED from each of the 22 COLONIES for the under-mentioned CAUSES in 1889-90.*

—	To Situations.	Discharged at own desire.	For Drunkenness.	Indolence.	Inability to work.	Bad Conduct.	Abandoned.	Requisition of Authorities.	Sick.	Time expired.	Total.
Wilhelmsdorf -	211	566	—	—	—	—	5	4	5	—	791
Kästorf -	167	491	16	27	—	22	14	8	24	—	769
Rickling -	225	443	2	7	1	32	35	16	3	—	764
Friedrichswille -	119	669	1	6	16	15	6	18	8	—	838
Dornahof -	174	383	5	6	6	28	87	3	15	—	707
Seyda -	135	263	1	13	6	19	12	5	12	286	752
Dauelsberg -	49	194	7	11	4	4	21	1	5	—	296
Wunscha -	198	239	2	1	2	22	19	1	43	8	535
Meierei -	107	413	5	2	1	30	6	10	21	—	595
Karlshof -	158	1,010	22	2	—	37	7	12	1	—	1,249
Berlin -	151	400	16	7	6	96	149	20	47	—	892
Ankenbuck -	94	201	2	12	2	23	23	8	1	—	366
Ulrichstein -	81	393	1	7	2	—	10	8	5	—	507
Lühlerheim -	124	377	—	5	6	8	19	15	1	—	555
Schneckengrün -	59	512	4	7	4	39	25	4	22	—	676
Elkenroth -	86	216	2	1	8	7	3	3	7	—	333
Simonshof -	79	516	—	34	33	37	6	7	9	—	721
Maria-Veen -	41	639	—	3	9	19	14	2	12	—	739
Alt-Latzig -	45	202	6	4	4	23	16	3	10	—	313
Magdeburg -	250	80	4	2	2	20	18	12	39	—	427
Geilsdorf -	63	312	1	—	—	2	11	2	2	—	393
Friedrichwilhelmsdorf	7	45	—	2	—	8	3	2	2	—	69
Total -	2,623	8,564	97	159	112	491	509	164	294	294	13,307
Per-centage -	19.7	64.4	0.7	1.2	0.9	3.7	3.8	1.2	2.2	2.2	100.0

The question of "situations obtained through the colony" is one which is extremely difficult to investigate thoroughly. So far as my inquiries enable me to form an opinion, the situations are frequently of an inferior order. The situations may be found in (a) the neighbourhood of the colony, or (b) at a distance.

(a.) In the case of a colony situated in the midst of a district where agriculture is carried on partly by large farmers and partly by small farmers cultivating their own land or leasing

* Dr. Berthold, *op. cit.*, p. 60.

their holdings (as cottars) from the *bauern*, it is, I believe, the case that the large farmers will not employ the colonists. This is due of course not to any bad repute that the colony may have, but rather to the doubt whether the colonist has been sufficiently cured of the defect, whatever it may have been, that caused his resort to the colony.

Situations are thus found, if at all, among the small farmers. These small farmers possessing very slender resources can only afford to pay extremely small wages, and they do pay, I am led to believe, to the ex-colonists whom they employ wages no higher than those paid in the colony. I have even been told that in some cases, in spite of the efforts of the colony to the contrary, ex-colonists have been employed at wages rather lower, and have been boarded at small farms in rather less comfortable conditions than were those which they had in the colony, their acceptance of lower wages being clearly due to their estimate of the value of free labour with the freedom also of drinking when they chose, as contrasted with the restrictions of the colony. It may be observed in this connection that although the numbers concerned are relatively small yet owing to the circumstances described, the minimum subsistence wage fixed by the colony for the purpose of inducing men to seek outside employment, may tend to some extent to become the maximum wage for low grade labour in the district.

(b.) In cases where situations are found at a distance, all depends upon the extent to which the employer takes advantage of his knowledge of the antecedents of an ex-colonist to cheapen his labour. The threat of dismissal by an employer who has been induced by the colony authorities to employ a colonist is a serious affair for a man who has been placed in the situation for the purpose of gaining anew the character he had lost.

There can be little doubt that, as a rule, the employers who seek to employ ex-colonists do so because they imagine such labour can be employed at a low rate of wages.

Employers who employ at low rates of wages, however, generally find in the long run that low wages mean dear work. Thus the ex-colonist is dismissed or resigns; in any case he finds his way back to the colony, and the process is repeated.

The disproportion between the number of colonists discharged at their own desire and the number of those who go to situations found for them by the colonies is very great. This will be seen from the following table, which shows the number of discharges from three principal causes, at 22 colonies in 1889-91.*

* See Dr. Berthold, *op. cit.*, p. 60.

	No.	Per cent.
Sent to situations - - - -	2,623	19·7
Discharged at own desire - - - -	8,564	64·4
Dismissed - - - -	2,120	15·9
Total discharged - - - -	13,307	100·0

This disproportion is accounted for by the difficulty which the colonies experience in obtaining situations, and also by the knowledge that a colonist is apt to be handicapped in a situation obtained for him by the colony.

Influence of the Colonies on Wages.

The question of the influence of the operations of the labour colonies on the rate of wages is one to which a positive answer is difficult to give.

Two kinds of influence might be alleged, (1) that they reduce the rate of wages by the competition of their products in the outside market, and by the low minimum wage fixed in the colonies, or (2) that they raise it by drawing off from the labour market a number of workers whose standard of subsistence is extremely low.

Those best qualified to judge of the economic effects of the German colonies are unanimously of opinion that they have had no influence upon the rates of wages. Two arguments are employed in support of this view; 1st, that in Germany wages are regulated to a great extent by custom, and only to a small extent by the operation of the laws of supply and demand of labour; and 2nd, that the material dealt with by the colonies does not in any real sense enter the competitive labour market, and would not do so even if the colonies were non-existent. On the first point, the extent to which customary wages obtain in Germany is probably not so great as it used to be. Even if it were, local customs change from time to time, and it is conceivable that a colony might produce such a change in its neighbourhood.

As regards the second point, if we regard the colonists as a class apart—as a class of non-effectives—it will be evident that their proceedings will have a trifling—if any—effect upon the labour market. The difficulty experienced by the colonies in obtaining situations for the colonists goes a long way towards proving the slenderness of their influence upon the market for continuous labour.

It is to be observed, however, that the colonies do not interfere with the labour market, because they *do not deal* with the problem of the want of employment of the respectable workman. It is because the colonist is non-efficient, that he does not compete in the labour market. If the colonies turned out annually large numbers of regenerate labourers, they would compete. It is not alleged that injury would result from their doing so; but the element of non-interference with the processes of ordinary industry which at present is claimed for the colonies would disappear, and it would depend upon the skill with which they were administered, whether or not they wrought to social disadvantage, however benevolent might be their intentions.

The Effect of the Colony System upon the Regularity of Employment.

Here, as in the other elements of the economic effects of the colony system, it is difficult to obtain data upon which to form definite conclusions. The statistics of the German colonies show however that they are sought as places of refuge in winter, by those who manage somehow to secure their livelihood by more or less casual labour in summer. While this class of labourers would find it hard indeed to live were it not for the colonies, the apparent tendency is for the colony, in common with other forms of relief, to diminish the relatively high rates of wages in seasonal trades.

The considerations which apply to the question as to how far the colonies influence the rate of wages apply here also. The colonists are a class apart from ordinary labour, whose labour is inefficient and non-competitive, whose spasmodic appearance in the labour market can have no influence upon regular employment in any real sense.

Relations of the Colony to the Markets for Goods.

It is argued on behalf of the colonies, that the labour of the colonists is so inefficient and their product in consequence so expensive that the colonies cannot possibly compete with private enterprise. This would be sound if the colonies were not supported by charitable funds. As it is they might give away their produce and still exist.

The colonies, however, aim at being self-contained as far as practicable. The bulk of their produce is consumed in the colony, or in charitable institutions more or less definitely in connection with it, and thus the effects of the competition of the colony produce in the market are minimized.

It may be that the insignificance of the quantities of produce sent by the colonies into the local markets precludes the idea that they can have any effect upon the market for goods. That the quantities are relatively small there can be no doubt. On a market day at Bielefeld, for example, the quantity of produce sent in by the colony at Wilhelmsdorf rarely exceeds one-twentieth of the total quantity of similar produce offered in the market for sale. The local farmers and market gardeners offering produce for sale in this and other markets to which the colonies send their goods are understood to regard the competition of the colonies with equanimity. Here, as in the case of wages, the element of custom is said to count for much. It is the case, however, that in the small local markets prices vary widely even in the course of a morning. In the early hours prices are low because relatively few buyers have arrived. Between 8 and 9 o'clock in the morning the market is crowded, competition is brisk and most business is done. An hour later, when the best of the produce is gone, prices fall, and any price will be taken to clear out the remainder of the produce a farmer has brought in his cart. In a market so restricted as this, even a comparatively small quantity has its influence upon the price. It is clear therefore that unless the produce of the colony farm is well marketed, the throwing into the market, at sacrifice prices, of produce grown by means of a subsidy from the charitable might have a disastrous effect upon the producers of similar commodities. I have, however, been unable to trace any influence of this kind definitely to the colonies. In the case of the colonies in the cities, it is said that brush makers, toy makers, and others whose industries are interfered with look upon the colonies with no favourable eye.

Extent to which the Colonies cope with the Evils caused by want of Employment.

It will be evident, from the description and criticism of the colony system, that the evils caused by want of employment are only met to a modified extent. The result which in other countries has invariably followed the system of indiscriminate admission to relief has followed it also in Germany, and the colonies have been filled not by those who suffer from want of employment pure and simple, but by those who, besides suffering from want of employment, suffer from some moral or physical defect which renders them undesirable associates for those who have not fallen or who are not physically incapable.

For this reason the German working man shuns the colonies. He will not help to form the insignificant minority of 25 in the society of 75 ex-convicts.

It is the universal opinion, so far as I have been able to ascertain, that, at present, the regular working man will have nothing to do with the colonies.

The evils caused by want of employment are on the Continent less, both relatively and absolutely, than in England; thus the German colonies are not called upon to deal with these to the same extent as might be expected to be the case in England should such colonies be established in this country. The respectable artisan out of employment is looked after by the Elberfeld system of poor relief, which is now widely adopted throughout Germany.*

The German Colonies and Land Reclamation.

In nearly all of the agricultural colonies in Germany, the labour of the colonists is devoted to the reclamation of land. In some the methods are primitive, and hand labour is used where mechanical appliances might be adopted with advantage. In others mechanical aid is not rejected. The period during which the German colonies have existed is too short to determine how far the annual deficits of each colony have been covered by the increased value of the land operated upon. It is not certain that this increased value can ever be revealed, because it is unlikely that, unless in some rare case, the value will ever be realised. The farm colonies have not as yet sold any of their land, and thus any valuation which may be put upon it must, in the absence of a purchaser, be purely speculative.†

The only instance of a labour colony in which an increment has been realised is in the case of the Berlin (city) colony. Six years after its foundation the society sold at a large profit the greater part of the land originally purchased.‡

In the case of the farm colonies no doubt the increased value of the land appears, or ought to appear, in increased annual yield of the soil. But while labour of the inefficient colonist

* See Reports on Elberfeld Poor Law System and German Workmen's Colonies, 1888. C.—5341.

† The following is the estimated increment in value of the colony at Rickling. The valuation was made by the Government for assessing purposes; but Herr von Henitze, the President of the Society for Rickling, and Landrath of the district of Kiel, thinks that the valuation is too high.

	1883. Cost.	1884. Valuation.	1891. Valuation.
Land	Marks. 38,012	Marks. 100,000	Marks. 170,000

"If the amount of the Government valuation were realised, the colony would have raised the value of its investments from 7,200*l.* in 1883 to 17,500*l.* in 1891, an annual increment of 1,300*l.*, which, if deducted from the annual subsidy of 2,010*l.*, would reduce the cost of the colony to the community to 710*l.* per annum, or a cost of about 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.* per man benefited."—*Report on Labour Colonies.* By J. Mavor, J. R. Motion, J. Speir, and R. P. Wright. Glasgow, 1892. p. 43.

‡ See Report, Glasgow, 1892, above quoted, pp. 19 *et seq.*

type may be applied at subsistence wages upon reclaimable land with a minimum of loss or even with profit, it is by no means proved that such labour, if applied to the same land when brought into cultivation would enable the land to yield its full nett product. The increased value of the land may thus not be fully reaped by the colony unless the land is sold or cultivated by skilled labour under economical conditions.

It is obvious that the ordinary farmer endeavours to cultivate his land with as few labourers as possible; while the director of the colony has to find room upon the land for as many men as he can crowd upon it. This must always militate against the financial position of the colonies. The reclamation of land and the reclamation of men are two different processes, and there is no evidence in the history of the German colonies to show that the profits of the one will defray the costs of the other.

The following description of one of the colonies shows in detail how the work is carried on.

Wilhelmsdorf.

All the German Labour Colonies are conducted on the same general principle, although they differ in minor details; and in some of the arrangements the newer colonies are in advance of those that were established earlier. The colony at Wilhelmsdorf may, however, be taken as the type.*

The agricultural colony of Wilhelmsdorf is situated in the forest which stretches southwards from the Teutoburger Wald on one of the spurs of which, and in view of the colony, stands the Hermann monument. When the colony was established eleven years ago there was only one main road through this portion of the forest. Now, by the labours of the colonists, roads run in all directions, and the district has been fully opened up. It is not improbable that ere long the estate will be fully occupied by the numerous institutions which the active mind of Pastor von Bodelschwingh is continually projecting. One of the great highways has been made by colony labour, the province having defrayed a portion of the cost. Since the establishment of the colony there have been constructed by colonists' labour 30 to 40 kilometres of roads, and buildings covering four morgens (2½ acres) of land. New plantations also have been made to the extent of 70 morgens, and 431 morgens of land have been brought into cultivation.†

* For recent detailed description of Friedrichswille, Rickling, and Berlin, see *Report upon Labour Colonies*, Glasgow, 1892. For other accounts of these and of other colonies, see Bibliography, p. 431.

† 4 morgens = 1 hectare; 1 hectare = 2½ acres approximately.

The land occupied by Wilhelmsdorf and its subsidiary colonies for inebriates and epileptics is utilised as follows :—

	Morgen.
Meadow land	220
Potatoes	36
Rye	80
Maize	11
Buckwheat	10
Wheat	26
Lupins	6
Pasture and clover	30
Vegetables	17
Beet for fodder	25
Plantations	70
Forest	600
Sand	430
Roads	35
Buildings	4
	<hr/> 1,600 <hr/>

Wilhelmsdorf proper occupies 1,300 morgens, and Wilhelms-hütte, Eichhof, &c., 300 morgens.

The following is the farm stock at Wilhelmsdorf :—

8 horses and three foals.
 40 swine and boars.
 80 sucking pigs.
 170 sheep.
 44 cows and young cattle.
 1 bull.
 4 draught oxen.
 60 fowls.
 30 pigeons.

Under ordinary circumstances, and with the aid of agricultural machinery, the farm of Wilhelmsdorf could be worked by 30 men. It must be remembered, however, that in this case much of the work now done by the colonists—building, &c.—would be done by contract, and by the employment of outside labour, while some of it—road-making, &c.—would probably not be done at all, or not done in connexion with the working of the farm.

When an intending colonist arrives at Wilhelmsdorf the first thing to be done is to demand his papers. These are, as a rule, forthcoming, for police regulations are so stringent in Germany that anyone without visible means of support and

without papers runs risk of being promptly locked up as a vagabond. These papers consist of his discharge from prison, should he have been imprisoned; his book containing a record of his places of employment, and in the case of those who frequent the lodging-houses and relief stations, the *Wanderschein*, which gives a record of his progress through the country. These papers are retained by the director of the colony, and the applicant is at once, without inquiry of any sort, sent to get something to eat. The colony is about 5 miles from the nearest town, and about 9 miles from the nearest Herberge, so that the colonist must have had a considerable walk before he arrived at the colony. After having had his meal, the man is set to any work that may be available—field work or ditching generally to begin with. During the following few days inquiries are made through the police. If the man is seeking to escape from justice, the police quickly make application for his surrender; but no matter how bad his previous record may be, he is not dismissed from the colony unless he misconducts himself there.

During the past few years, however, as might be expected, the colonies have been victimised by certain colonists. When the conduct of these has become a nuisance their names are advertised in the "*Arbeiter-Kolonie*." These men are refused admittance to the colonies, and in certain cases may even be handed over to the police.

For the first 14 days after his arrival the colonist receives his maintenance, but is credited with no wages in addition. Should he be in need of clothes, as he generally is, he is supplied with these on credit.* After the first fortnight the colonist is credited with wages at the rate of from 20 pf. to 30 pf. (2½d. to 3½d.) per day in addition to his board and lodging.

The rate of wages is not uniform. Two of the cattle-men who have been for a considerable time in the colony have 50 pf. (6d.) per day; two others have 40 pf. each, a few have 30 pf. per day; the bulk have 25 pf., a few old colonists have 20 pf., and a very few 10 pf. (about 1½d.) per day. The rate is wholly at the discretion of the director of the colony. The bulk of the colonists have 25 pf. per day; but this applies only to the nine months during which it is possible to work out of doors for a full day. From November 15 until February 15 the rate is reduced to 20 pf. A bonus is occasionally given on leaving, as a recognition of good conduct.

The amount due to the colonist as wages is not paid in cash until he leaves the colony, and then he receives an order upon the Bielefeld institution for the money. But in many cases the

* These are charged for as follows:—Shirt, 1 mk. 40 pf.; trousers, 1 mk. to 2 mks.; coat, 3 mks. 50 pf. to 4 mks.; shoes, 4 mks.

Note.—Mark = 1s.; 100 pfennig = 1 mark.

colonist leaves the colony in debt. The cost of his clothes and his tobacco has more than swallowed up his surplus earnings.

Of the 104 persons who entered Wilhelmsdorf during the three months ending 31st March, 1893, 91 had left the colony on 6th of August.

	Marks.	pf.
Of these 91, 35 left in debt, the aggregate amount being - - - -	223	12
An average of 6 mks. 37 pf. per head.		
Of these 35 eight repaid their debts, amounting to - - - -	49	10
There left without cash and without debt 20, and there left with cash 36, to the amount of - - - -	132	14
An average of 3 mks. 67 pf. per head.		

This question of debt is in some ways likely to be a serious one. The loss to the colony in the period in question at the rate of about 35% per annum is not very great, but the influence upon the colonist cannot be good. What occurs is simply that men come for a few weeks to the colonies, get clothes on credit, and then go off on the tramp. If, on the other hand, the colony were permitted to detain a colonist until his clothes had been paid for, there would at once be an infringement of the principle of liberty of movement which the colonies hold sacred, and the door would be open to some of the incidents of the sweating system which might, in spite of the philanthropic character of the colonies, work to their disadvantage. It is true that when a colonist secures a situation through the colony, the colony requires the employer to undertake to pay out of the wages earned by the colonist the debt due to the colony. There are two drawbacks to this system. In the first place, the employer does not always pay, and the colony does not always think it worth while to pursue him for payment; and in the second place, there is an inducement for the colonist who is in debt to go on the tramp in the hope of getting for himself a situation, in which case he would be relieved of the inconvenience of having the colony debt stopped out of his wages.*

The largest number ever accommodated at Wilhelmsdorf was 410. This was in 1888, when there was much local distress during the winter. Since then other colonies have been opened and similar pressure has not been put upon the resources of the colony.

* The system adopted at La Chalmelle of giving outright a suit of clothes on arrival avoids this system of debt, and is probably no more costly to the colony. Cf. page 329, *infra*.

The following table shows in great detail the previous employments of colonists at Wilhelmsdorf up till 31st July 1893.

Trades.	No. now in Colony.	No. previously passed through Colony.	Total since foundation.	Trades.	No. now in Colony.	No. previously passed through Colony.	Total since foundation.
*Labourers	65	2,805	2,870	Gilders	—	8	8
Gardeners	6	131	137	Technologists	2	16	18
Haymakers	—	3	3	Bakers	2	235	237
Miners	2	171	173	Confectioners	1	13	14
Bleacher	—	1	1	Butchers	2	23	25
Brewers	1	48	49	Barbers	2	44	46
Distillers	—	2	2	Hatters	—	5	5
Tilers	—	12	12	Furriers	1	9	10
Slaters	1	13	14	Tailors	1	143	144
Builders	7	161	168	Glove-makers	—	9	9
Stonecutters	1	40	41	Button-makers	—	2	2
Paviors	—	2	2	Cap-makers	—	4	4
Moulders	—	47	47	Lace-makers	—	2	2
Boiler-makers	1	39	40	Umbrella-makers	—	4	4
Founders	1	11	12	Shoemakers	2	186	188
Forger or striker	—	1	1	Brush-makers	—	12	12
Smiths	2	131	133	Cigar-makers	2	88	90
Wheelwrights	—	12	12	Basket-makers	—	14	14
Locksmiths	7	284	291	Knife-makers	1	11	12
Tin founders	—	7	7	Watchmakers	—	16	16
Brick-makers	4	17	21	Stocking weavers	1	7	8
Nail-makers	1	1	2	Cloth weavers	2	21	23
Burners	—	2	2	Weavers	3	99	102
Millers	1	42	43	Spinner	—	1	1
Rope-makers	—	22	22	Dyers	—	40	40
Soap-boiler	—	1	1	Fleshers	—	79	80
Chimney sweepers	—	13	13	Tanners	1	15	16
Sculptors	—	8	8	Saddlers	1	51	52
Photographers	—	3	3	Furniture polisher	—	1	1
Map draughtsman	—	1	1	Painters	—	186	186
Engraver	—	1	1	Paperhangers	—	13	13
Lithographers	1	17	18	Joiners	3	98	101
Book printers	1	16	17	Carpenters	2	55	57
Bookbinders	—	50	50	Turners	3	10	13
Compositors	—	36	36	Iron turners	—	45	45

* Hand labourer, factory worker, and farm labourer are not distinguished in the German labour colony statistics, otherwise very exhaustive. It is equally impossible to distinguish the classes in the books of the colonies or from the *Zahlkarten*.

Trades.	No. now in Colony.	No. previously passed through Colony.	Total since foundation.	Trades.	No. now in Colony.	No. previously passed through Colony.	Total since foundation.
Brass founders -	1	19	20	Valet -	—	1	1
Gold workers -	—	14	14	Coachmen -	—	11	11
Tinsmiths -	—	40	40	Hospital attendants -	3	36	39
Coppersmiths -	2	40	42	Copyists -	3	18	21
Silver worker -	1	1	1	Account collector -	1	—	1
Lacquerers -	—	5	5	Accountants -	1	149	150
File cutters -	—	9	9	Managers -	6	25	31
Wire drawers -	1	36	37	Merchants -	10	372	382
Gunmakers -	—	6	6	Authors -	—	3	3
Glass workers -	1	15	16	Teachers -	1	34	35
Potters -	—	6	6	Musicians -	—	10	10
Box-makers -	—	3	3	Physicians -	—	2	2
Dentists' mechanics -	—	4	4	Pharmaceutical chemists -	—	11	11
Seaman -	—	1	1	Geometers -	—	2	2
Land registry clerks -	1	7	8	Functionaries (State or municipal). -	1	42	43
Cooks -	—	4	4				
Waiters -	2	56	58	Total -	169	6,698	6,867

Summarising the above table into large groups of occupations we get the following results, from which it will be seen that nearly half of the colonists belong to the lower grades of the labouring class.

	In Colony 31st July 1898.	Left since 1882.	Total since 1882.	Percentage of Total of Colonists.
I. Unskilled Labour:—				
Day labourers -				
II. Inferior Grade Skilled Labour:—	71	2,969	3,040	43.8
Farm workers -				
Gardeners -				
III. Medium Grade Skilled Labour:—				
Heavy handicrafts -	29	1,080	1,109	16.2
IV. Superior Grade Skilled Labour:—				
Light handicrafts -	41	1,908	1,949	28.3
V. From military service	—	—	—	—
VI. Domestic employments	5	108	113	1.7
VII. Commercial employment	21	564	585	8.5
VIII. Professional employment	2	104	106	1.5
Totals	169	6,698	6,867	100.0

Westphalia and the Rhineland provinces of Prussia contributed about two-thirds of the colonists at Wilhelmsdorf, Westphalia alone being 48 per cent. of the total. Full particulars of the places of origin of the colonists are given in the annexed table, which also shows the aggregate number of relief days credited to each province, i.e., the sum arrived at by adding together the number of days that each man was in the colony.

	Number of Colonists on 31st July 1893.	Total number of Colonists since 1882.	Aggregate No. of Relief Days.
Anhalt - - - - -	—	11	445
Baden - - - - -	—	32	2,309
Bavaria - - - - -	3	75	7,943
Brunswick - - - - -	—	29	4,018
Bremen - - - - -	—	24	2,086
Hamburg - - - - -	1	25	2,107
Lippe Detmold - - - - -	8	219	23,857
Mecklenburg - - - - -	1	23	1,700
Oldenburg - - - - -	1	19	1,579
Prussia : Province Brandenburg - - - - -	7	156	17,226
" " Hanover - - - - -	6	150	11,153
" " Hesse - - - - -	3	432	43,649
" " Posen - - - - -	3	68	3,271
" " Pomerania - - - - -	2	59	6,525
" " East Prussia - - - - -	2	109	16,063
" " West Prussia - - - - -	3	82	7,560
" " Rhineland - - - - -	17	1,323	113,283
" " Saxony - - - - -	1	180	11,376
" " Silesia - - - - -	4	226	20,473
" " Schleswig-Holstein - - - - -	1	17	1,664
" " Westphalia - - - - -	80	3,279	297,406
Saxony, Kingdom - - - - -	7	84	6,228
Schaumburg-Lippe - - - - -	1	10	2,568
Thuringia - - - - -	3	70	8,209
Waldeck-Pyrmont - - - - -	1	55	2,352
Württemberg - - - - -	2	21	1,319
Foreign countries - - - - -	2	89	7,632
Total - - - - -	169	6,867	624,457

Of the 6,867 intrants into the Wilhelmsdorf Colony, 2,421, or 35·3 per cent., reported that they possessed a home, while 4,446, or 64·7 per cent., were without any fixed residence.

As might be expected from the antecedents of the colonists, their notions of the rights of individual property are quite primitive, and they barely resent being deprived by each other of tobacco and trifling articles of private property which they individually possess. Only one case of actual theft from the colony has taken place, and this was committed, not by a colonist, but by an overseer, who stole blankets belonging to the colony and sold them in the neighbouring town of Bielefeld. There has been one case of housebreaking in the neighbourhood by a small party of colonists, who left the colony and prowled about the neighbourhood.

The time-table of the colony varies with the seasons :—

	Winter.	Late Spring.	Summer.
Bising, week days - - -	5.0 to 5.30	4.30	4.0
" Sundays - - -	6.0 to 6.30	6.0	6.0
First breakfast - - -	5.30 to 5.50	4.50	4.20
Morning Service - - -	5.40 to 6.10	5.10	4.40
Second breakfast - - -	9.0	8.30	8.30
Dinner - - - - -	12.0	12.0	12.0
Afternoon meal (carried to the fields) -	—	3.30	3.30
Supper - - - - -	5.50	7.0	8.0

The following is the menu :—

First breakfast	-	Coffee, black bread, beet jelly.
Second breakfast	-	Lard or butter or cheese, black bread.
Dinner	-	Vegetables with potatoes, pig's fat three times a week.
Afternoon meal	-	Coffee, bread and lard.
Supper	-	Milk (or rice or peas), soup, potatoes, herring occasionally.

In the summer of 1893 the men were employed in the colony at the following occupations.

Occupations.	Paid Foremen.	Colonists.
Joiners - - - - -	—	3
Shoemakers - - - - -	—	2
Tailors - - - - -	1	1
Smiths - - - - -	—	4
Coppersmith (working also in sheet iron, tin, and zinc)	—	1
Masons and bricklayers - - - - -	—	6
Dining-room service - - - - -	—	2
Laundry (for three days in each week) - - - - -	—	3
Vegetable gang - - - - -	—	8
Farmyard hands - - - - -	—	9
Field workers - - - - -	2	76
Garden - - - - -	—	7
Clerk - - - - -	—	1
Total - - - - -	3	123

It will be seen that most of the colonists are employed in the fields.* This work includes reclamation, which at Wilhelmsdorf is carried on by a method of trenching. The land upon which the colony is situated contains at a depth of from two to three feet below the surface, a friable limestone possessing highly fertilizing properties. The superincumbent light mould is removed and the stone exposed. When it weathers, which it does very rapidly, this material is dug out and spread over the land. The practice is to employ a large gang of men on this work all day in winter, when the weather admits of out-door labour, and in summer in the early hours of the day. In the afternoon during the hay, rye and other harvests, the whole body of men are employed in the fields, gathering and loading.

The type of men who occupy the Wilhelmsdorf colony has already been indicated. Their antecedents do not lead one to expect either great diligence, exemplary conduct, or high spirits. Yet the perfect orderliness, maintained without any apparent effort, the absence of drill, the extent to which they are trusted to work without close supervision, the general good nature, and on the whole, the spirit of hard work which pervade the place, are very remarkable. In some of the German colonies one cannot fail to notice the crushed hopelessness of the aspect of the men, the absence of individual initiative and their general helplessness. So far as my observation went these features struck me less at Wilhelmsdorf than elsewhere. The explanation is probably to be found in the circumstance that the colony is the oldest, and that it has had the advantage of the management from the beginning of Herr Meyer, the director, whose experienced kindness enables him to deal with the men individually in an impressively skilful way. It should be said in this connection that the personal element counts for much in the German colonies. The directors or "house fathers" are as a rule very happily chosen. The enthusiasm and ability with which they deal with the men under their charge form a really important feature in the development of the system in Germany.

Projected further Developments of the Labour Colony System.

The development of the labour colony system has brought into prominence two facts:—1. That colonies open to all tend to be occupied mainly by discharged prisoners. 2. That a certain number of these and a certain number of those who have not undergone punishment, but who frequent the colonies, stand in need of permanent organisation.

Dr. Berthold† proposes that those who have been frequently imprisoned and who have been also frequently in the colonies, should be handed over to the police. This would involve their

* For an extended description of the agricultural methods of the German colonies, see Report cited, Glasgow 1892.

† Dr. Berthold, *op. cit.*, p. 71.

being sent to the House of Correction (*Corrections-Anstalt*) for periods varying from six months to two years.

Pastor Cronmeyer,* on the other hand, proposes† that those who have been imprisoned twice or oftener, or who have been twice or oftener in a labour colony, should be sent to a new type of colony to be called the improvement colony, and compelled to remain there for at least three months. While those who belong to the second class mentioned above, namely, those who have not been punished, who have been diligent in the labour colony, but who stand in need of permanent organisation for their labour, should be sent to another type of colony—the Heimat-Kolonie (“Home” Colony). There they would at first be treated as are the colonists in the labour colony of the ordinary type, and afterwards settled with their families on small holdings after the Dutch model. The distinction between Dr. Berthold’s proposal and that of Pastor Cronmeyer’s is that the first involves handing the colonists over to the police, and the treatment of them as prisoners, while the second contemplates their treatment throughout by the voluntary agency of the Labour Colony Society. The objection to the first proposal is that it is apparently a return to a method which the labour colonies were intended to improve upon; and the objection to the second is that it involves compulsory residence in a private institution, a method hitherto associated with grave evils.

The improvement colony (*Besserungs-Kolonie*) has not yet been established; although it is conceivable that the existing labour colonies might be converted into colonies of this type.

A beginning has been made with the “home” colony. One has been founded at Friedrichwilhelmsdorf, near Wulsdorf, about three miles from Bremerhaven. This colony was opened in September 1886 with 12 colonists.†

During the past two years the average number of colonists has been 35. The colonists, when they first enter, are housed in barracks. Afterwards they are promoted to the position of Heimat-Kolonisten (“Home” Colonists), and have separate cottages for each family. Of the second class there are at present 12 families.

The cost of the establishment of the colony was as follows:—†

	Marks. §
Land - - - - -	71,724
Cost of putting buildings in repair - - -	58,854
Stock, &c. - - - - -	23,291
Total - - - - -	153,869

* Eine Zuflucht der Elenden, Bremerhaven, 1893, p. 37. See also Die Heimat-Kolonie Friedrich-Wilhelmsdorf. Bremerhaven, 1891; and Bericht über die General-Versammlung der Arbeiter-Kolonie Wilhelmsdorf in Hamm am 7ten August 1886. Bielefeld [1886], p. 5.

† Cronmeyer, *op. cit.*, p. 41.

‡ Sechster Jahresbericht des Vereins für die Heimat-Colonie Friedrich-Wilhelmsdorf. Geestemünde. 1893.

§ One mark = 1s.

The debt, upon which interest is payable, is as follows :—

	Marks.
Bearing interest at 2°/o, and sinking fund at 2°/o	5,000
Bearing interest at 3½°/o	60,000
Bearing interest at 4½°/o	50,000
Total	<u>115,000</u>

The present value of the land is estimated at 93,667 marks, an increase in value of nearly 22,000 marks.

The colony is aided by the following annual grants—

	Marks.
From Emperor William's Fund	1,000
From the Ministry of Agriculture	750
And by collections and subscriptions to the amount (in 1892) of	11,000
Total	<u>12,750</u>

This at present suffices to cover the annual deficit.

Herbergen zur Heimat.

The *Herbergen zur Heimat* are a kind of model lodging-house. Their establishment is promoted by the German Herberge Society (Deutscher Herbergsverein), and most of them are established and maintained by provincial or local societies under various names. The system is to some extent international. The Society publishes a list of 410 Herbergen in Germany, eight in Switzerland, four in Holland, three in Denmark, one in Russia, two in New York, and two in London.

The total amount of capital invested in the German Herbergen is estimated at 30,000,000 marks (1,500,000*l.*), the total number of beds being 14,000 to 15,000, or about 100*l.* per bed. In 1890 the total amount of guests in the German Herbergen was 3,200,000. Of these, 2,000,000 paid their own expenses in cash, 700,000 worked for their entertainment, and 500,000 were in regular employment at the Herbergen.

The accommodation at the Herbergen varies very much. At Bielefeld, where the Herberge was built and is conducted under the surveillance of Pastor von Bodelschwingh, there are large concert halls, a gymnasium, and thoroughly comfortable sleeping rooms. In Frankfort-on-Main there is the largest Herberge; at Berlin there are four, and at Hamburg two. In some of the

smaller towns the Herbergen are rather squalid, although the accommodation is, as a rule, much superior to that provided by the Salvation Army shelters in London, or to that provided by the municipality of Glasgow in their model-lodging houses. Not only is the accommodation superior, but the cost is rather less than in the cases mentioned.

Prices charged at the Herbergen zur Heimat in Germany.

W=Ordinary inn conforming to the principles of the Herbergverein and recommended by it.

P=Private lodging-house ditto ditto.

H=Herberge zur Heimat founded and conducted by the Herbergverein or by a local society in connection with it.

N=Lodging, supper, and breakfast.

M=Dinner alone.

		N.	M.			N.	M.
		pfgs.	pfgs.			pfgs.	pfgs.
Notteln.	P. -	45	50	Oeynhaus.	H. -	55	30
Longerich.	W. -	80	30	Bunda.	H. -	60	40
Dulmen.	W. -	55	25	Bielefeld.	H. -	50	20
Dorsten.	W. -	75	45	Paderborn.	H. -	75	30
Herford.	H. -	60	30				

NOTE.—100 pfennig = 1s.

In the Herbergen of the Brandenburg Herberge Society the charges are:—Bed, 20 pf.—50 pf. (2½d. to 6d.); dinner, 30 pf.—35 pf.; coffee, 5 pf.; bread and butter, 10 pf.; soup, 10 pf.

The class of men who occupy the Herbergen varies in different places and at different times. The vagrants who work for their lodging and food in the relief station attached sometimes form a large proportion of the guests. At other times the genuine workman seeking employment is in the majority. In the dining hall of a Herberge one may find the most varied company.

The comfort of the Herbergen depends greatly upon the relative proportions of the classes chiefly patronising them. The extent to which they are religious institutions is apt to be exaggerated. The sole introduction of religion is in morning and evening prayers, which the guests may attend or not, as they please. The Herbergen may, however, in some cases have an improving effect upon their casual visitors; but this will depend entirely upon the "House fathers." In some cases these men are trained in the Nazareth House at Bielefeld, or in other institutions for the training of deacons, and are really agents of the Home Mission.

The German Herbergen, so far as I was able to examine them seem to me to be considerably more desirable lodging-places than any similar institutions in England.

The following table exhibits the growth of the Herberge system in Germany :—*

—		Number of New Herbergen established.	Number of beds.
1854-62	- - - -	16	1,388
1863-69	- - - -	44	2,128
1870-76	- - - -	24	1,409
1877-83	- - - -	77	2,976
1884-90	- - - -	198	5,534
1891	- - - -	20	495
1891	Total - -	379	13,930

Classifying the Herbergen according to the number of beds provided in each, we get this result—

	Number.
Herbergen with upwards of 100 beds	- 16
Do. " 60-99 beds - -	- 49
Do. " 40-59 " - -	- 74
Do. " 20-39 " - -	- 130
Do. " 10-19 " - -	- 70
Do. " less than 10 - -	- 40
	<hr/> 379 <hr/>

Relief Stations.

The labour yard is familiar enough in England. Here the applicant for relief is set to chop firewood, for the chopping of which he receives money or an order upon some municipal or other lodging-house wherewith he may have food and lodging, or he may have both in a house attached to the labour yard. Whether or not the produce can be sold for the cost of the entertainment, the impression is produced upon the casual that he has worked for his supper and his bed. The *Verpflegungsstation*, or relief station on the Continent, finds, to a certain extent, a parallel in the English labour yard.

No satisfactory substitute for wood-chopping has yet been devised. It remains as the most easily administered form of giving work.

The following tables show the extent to which relief stations have been established in Germany, and the extent to which they are used :—

* Die Herbergen zur Heimat und mit ihnen verbundenen Verpflegungsstationen im Jahre 1891. Bielefeld [1892].

TABLE A.

TABLE showing the NUMBER of RELIEF STATIONS in various PARTS of GERMANY, and the Number in Proportion to Population, together with Particulars as to Relief given in the Year 1890.*

	Population.	No. of Stations.		Relief given.			
		Total.	Per 100,000 Inhabitants.	No. of Dinners.	No. of Suppers.	No. of Beds.	No. of Breakfasts.
Kingdom of Prussia -	29,937,367	951	3.17	603,067	1,053,328	1,076,466	1,053,837
" Bavaria -	5,594,983	239	4.27	114,474	230,129	237,798	170,994
" Saxony -	3,503,694	144	4.11	66,350	107,723	111,118	94,039
" Württemberg -	2,034,523	120	6.38	22,723	60,330	83,618	67,838
Grand Duchy, Baden -	1,457,867	235	20.21	68,324	139,034	163,314	100,916
" Hesse -	993,883	40	4.03	9,074	51,550	60,446	39,998
" Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach -	324,091	31	9.51	21,248	45,851	47,143	30,781
Other Grand Duchies -	1,031,238	10	0.97	14,911	13,713	18,994	13,690
Duchy of Saxe-Altenburg -	170,864	14	8.19	8,331	31,251	30,470	19,534
" Saxe-Coburg-Gotha -	204,513	18	8.78	11,597	19,822	19,296	9,732
Other Duchies -	896,568	20	2.22	31,290	41,725	47,836	36,846
Principalities -	568,877	23	4.04	7,931	26,080	35,444	24,403
Free Towns -	879,453	1	0.11	5,150	13,687	13,739	13,739
State of Alsace-Lorraine -	1,003,506	1	0.06	190	350	410	410
German Empire	49,688,470	1,967	3.96	973,460	1,871,591	1,986,001	1,668,606

* From Statistik der Natural Verpflegungsstationen in Deutschland im Jahre 1890. Von O. von Masow. Gadderbaum, 1891.

TABLE B.

PARTICULARS as to the Cost of the RELIEF STATIONS throughout the GERMAN EMPIRE in 1890.*

					Marks.
Gross expenses comprised in "general costs"					1,317,072
Receipts from the sale of the product of labour - - - - -					67,610
Nett cost - - - - -					1,249,462
					Number.
Total number of guests in the stations attached to the labour yards on the night of 15th and 16th December 1890 -					9,216
Average number per station - -					471
Average cost per individual—					
Per year - - - - -					Marks. 135.57
Per day - - - - -					00.37

TABLE C.

PARTICULARS as to the different kinds of RELIEF STATIONS throughout the GERMAN EMPIRE in 1890.†

Stations maintained by public authorities—					
(a.) District - - - - -					1,255
(b.) Commune - - - - -					452
					1,707
Stations maintained by societies - -					250
Total number of stations - -					1,957
Stations annexed to ordinary inns -					1,073
„ maintained by Christian societies					252
Otherwise - - - - -					632
					1,957
Stations with labour exchanges attached					1,158
Without - - - - -					799
					1,957
Stations with arrangements for compulsory labour - - - - -					1,116
Without - - - - -					841
					1,957

* Von Massow, *op. cit.*, p. 8.† Von Massow, *op. cit.*, p. 9.

TABLE D.

The following table shows the progressive increase in the number of stations, and the diminution in the number of prosecutions for vagabondage in the Kingdom of Prussia* :—

					Number of Stations.	Number of Prosecutions for Vagabondage.
1882	-	-	-	-	—	23,808
1883	-	-	-	-	—	20,833
1884	-	-	-	-	595	18,157
1885	-	-	-	-	915	15,727
1887	-	-	-	-	917	15,466
1890	-	-	-	-	951	8,605

The importance of the "Home" Colonies and the relief stations is that they increase the mobility of the unemployed labourer. They enable him to go from a place in which there is no work for him to do, to another in which he may find work. If the unemployed workman has sufficient resources to pay for food and lodging he may go on "Wanderschaft" without working his way. He will learn at the Herberge whether or not there is employment to be had in the neighbourhood and if there is not, he may wander on to the next town. If he has no resources he may work at wood-chopping in the morning, obtain his food and lodging and wander on in the afternoon. This is going on "Wanderschaft." It is a hard life, but it has its attractions at all events for the German, and the Herbergen and Verpflegungsstationen make it as easy as perhaps it is possible to make it.

The accompanying map shows the distribution of the Relief Stations, Herbergen, and Labour Colonies in the province of Westphalia. The system has attained the importance of a network over the province. These maps are displayed at the Herbergen, as is also a list of situations vacant.

* Von Massow, *op. cit.*, p. 12. The remarks on p. 278 *supra* apply here also.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT OF THE GERMAN LABOUR COLONIES.
 [Compiled by Herr A. F. Schlunk, Director of the Berliner Arbeiter-Kolonie.]

Name of Colony.	Year.	No. of Places.	No. of Relief Days.*	Income.										Loans.				Value of Land and Buildings.	Value of Tools, Furni- ture, Cattle, &c.		
				Subscriptions.			Public Grants.			From Public Sources.				From Private Sources.							
				Members' Subscrip- tions and Collections.	Societies and Corpora- tions, Savings Banks.	Church Collec- tions, and Dona- tions.	The State.	Local Public Grants.		Free of In- terest.	Bearing In- terest.	Free of In- terest.	Bearing In- terest.	From Public Sources.	From Private Sources.						
								Pro- vince and Coun- try.	Kreis and Bezirk.							Town.	Total.				
																				Marks.	Marks.
Alt-Latzig	- 1892-3	58	21,000	11,000	0	0	4,000	1,500	0	16,500	0	0	0	50,000	21,100	100,700	12,400				
Ankenbuck	- 1893 -	76	27,000	6,100	1,400	0	7,000	3,600	2,800	20,900	0	0	0	0	42,300	59,400	18,700				
Berlin -	" -	230	64,400	15,600	3,000	400	0	0	8,000	27,000	0	0	0	165,000	178,700	360,000	97,900				
Carlsdorf	- 1891-2	300	39,800	5,200	0	1,500	0	15,000	2,750	24,450	0	0	0	0	38,400	32,000	16,500				
Daubitzberg	- 1890 -	50	11,000	800	0	0	0	0	0	300	0	0	0	0	19,300	73,000	15,000				
Dornsdorf	- 1891-2	100	25,700	31,000	6,250	0	5,500	13,460	56,150	0	0	81,850	101,400	?	?	?	?				
Elkenroth	- 1893 -	50	22,900	25,000	800	0	11,000	0	0	96,300	100,000	0	0	0	32,300	10,000	24,000				
Ertsch -	- 1891-2	160	17,100	3,400	1,300	0	0	0	3,400	8,100	0	0	0	?	?	?	?				
Fried-Wilhelms- dorf.	" -	36	13,000	7,400	5,900	0	0	0	500	13,800	19,000	5,000	3,000	42,000	44,000	109,500	21,700				
Friedrichswille	" -	175	49,200	8,100	0	0	11,000	25,300	30	44,520	0	0	0	0	58,200	96,400	45,780				
Gellendorf	-	80						Not stated.													
Hamburg	- 1893 -	110	9,950	26,800	0	0	0	0	0	26,500	0	0	0	0	?	?	30,000				
Hilmarshof	-	50						Not stated.													

* 1/2, Number of men boarded and lodged during the year for one day.

† Including value of agricultural and other commodities produced and consumed.

Financial Statements of the German Labour Colonies—continued.

Name of Colony.	Year.	No. of Places.	No. of Relief Days.	Income.										Loans.				Value of Tools, Furni- ture, Cattle, &c.	Value of Land and Buildings.	Expen- diture.																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																							
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* i.e., Number of men boarded and lodged during the year for one day.

† Including value of agricultural and other commodities produced and consumed.

(b.)—THE DUTCH LABOUR COLONIES.

The first Dutch labour colony was founded in 1818 at Frederiksoord under the auspices of the *Maatschappij van Weldadigheid* (the Society of Beneficence). Within a year after its formation this society consisted of 20,000 members, and the annual subscriptions reached 4,583*l*. The projects of the society included the formation of colonies for the repression of mendicity, colonies for indigent persons and veterans, free colonies, colonies for inspectors of agricultural works, colonies for orphans and foundlings, and colonies for agricultural instruction.*

The Society of Beneficence was founded by General Van den Bosch, who had acquired in the Dutch East Indies a favourable impression of the system of small holdings, and who had conceived the design of placing the able-bodied paupers of Holland on small holdings subject to a life-rent, upon the great tract of moor land in the provinces of Friesland and Overijssel in North Holland.

To begin with, a tract of heath land, extending to about 1,200 acres, was purchased for 4,660*l*., "the money being raised " by loan, to be repaid by instalments in 16 years, with interest " at six per cent."† Additional estates were purchased from time to time, until, in 1827, the Free Colonies covered altogether an area of 2,900 acres, the Colonies of Veterans 1,253 acres, and the Beggar Colonies 4,280 acres, or an aggregate of 8,433 acres, upon which there were 6,751 souls, including officials. In addition to the amount of land in cultivation, as above detailed, the society owned about 5,000 acres of heath land.‡

The cost of the land is stated in the accounts at from 22*s*. to 33*s*. per acre.

The two most important departments of the operations of the Dutch Beneficent Society were the Beggar Colonies and the Free Colonies. The Beggar Colonies were administered by the society up till 1859, when the Government took them over. It is open to question whether or not the method upon which the colonies were conducted was adapted for permanent management by voluntary agency.

The discipline was severe; punishment by flogging and solitary confinement were imposed upon delinquents. The Beggar Colonies were, indeed, rather penal than reformatory. The conditions are described as having been insanitary.§

* Willink, *op. cit.*, p. 3.
 ‡ Willink, *op. cit.*, p. 36.

† Willink, *loc. cit.*
 § *Ib.*, p. 16.

Free Colonies.

The Free Colonies were conducted upon a different principle. The colonists were from the beginning, and are now, not peasant proprietors, but rather peasant life-renters. The distinction between the free colonist and a farmer working under the ordinary conditions of tenant farming lies simply in the circumstance that the free farmer is entitled to rely upon the society to make up any deficiency in his maintenance, whereas the tenant farmer has no such resource.

Sir John MacNeill, who visited the colonies in 1853, reported that at Frederiksoord there were only 16 free farmers, against 25 in 1848, and that owing to the want of aptitude of the colonists for agricultural labour, and a general want of economical habits, "the Free Colony, regarded as an attempt to make the families maintain themselves, must be pronounced a failure."*

How far this sweeping judgment of Sir John MacNeill's has been justified by the subsequent history of the colonies will appear later.

The causes of resort to the colonies are as various and as difficult to determine accurately as in other countries. Among the causes set down by the director as prominent are "sickness" and "too many children." While the latter cause no doubt operates to a great extent in keeping the colonists in the colony, an examination of the books does not disclose any ground for believing that it is a potent cause in sending them there.

The records of fifty families of free farmers and labourers, that is, one-sixth of the total number, extracted from the books of the colony, show the following results. These cases may probably be regarded as fairly representing the whole body of the colonists.

Statistics of Fifty Families.

Number of cases in which <i>one</i> parent had been born in one of the Dutch colonies	23, or 46 per cent.
Number of cases in which <i>both</i> parents had been born in the Dutch colonies	- 11, or 22 per cent.
Number of children born to colonists prior to entry into the colony	- 28
Number of children born to colonists in colony	- 237
Total number of children in 50 families	- 265
Number of children per family	- 5.3
Number of <i>colonists without</i> children	- 1

* Willink, *op. cit.*, p. 15. "Report by M. Georges Berry to the Conseil Municipal de Paris, 1891," and H. V. Mills' account in "Poverty and the State."

Almost all the colonists, prior to entrance into the colony, were unskilled labourers in the Dutch cities—in Amsterdam, Rotterdam, or the Hague. Unfortunately, no statistics of professions are available, but there are a few carpenters, a few painters, and a few men who have received partial or complete professional training. During recent years the number of agricultural labourers admitted as colonists has somewhat increased. There are on the colonies 400 parents, and of these 15 or 3·8 per cent. are illiterate.

The average age of the colonists on entrance is 40 years, although a few enter at an earlier age. Adults who enter the colony may, subject to good behaviour, remain colonists for life. The children of colonists are sent to situations outside the colony when they arrive at maturity.

One man, an Englishman, who was born in 1810, and was married to a Dutch wife, entered the colony in 1835. He has thus been a colonist for 58 years. Another has been in the colony for 54 years, and several for periods of from 30 to 40 years. Many, especially women, have been born, grown to maturity, married, had children, and died in the colony.

In the winter of 1892-93 there was a considerable amount of distress due to want of employment at the Hague. The relief society (*Armenzorg*) assisted, during the three months in the depth of winter, 600 families at a cost of 1,500*l.* Of these 600 families four were sent to the colonies.

There are two classes in Frederiksoord and Willemsoord, labourers and free farmers.

The labourers are admitted on the recommendation of charitable associations in the cities. If they are infirm or incapable of work the society which recommends their admission is expected to pay a subsidy to the colony to help to maintain them. There are a few vacancies for labourers every year. At present an additional number of from 15 to 20 families could be accepted. Each labourer's family is housed in a separate cottage with a garden, and those of the family who are capable of labour, work upon the colony farm, receiving wages at the rate of 40 cts. per day in winter, and 60 cts. in summer (8*d.* and 1*s.* respectively). The families of the labourers are subject to the same rules as regards education as the families of the free farmers.* The labourer rarely earns sufficient to support himself and his family until after he has been in the colony for two years. After he has been there for five or six years, if there is a vacancy, and if his conduct has been good, he may be promoted to the Second class, that of free farmers (*vryboeren*).

The free farmers are peasants cultivating small holdings upon what is practically a life tenure. They pay rent to the colony, and receive stock and seed on credit from it. If the free

* See *infra*, p. 314.

farmer misconducts himself he may be degraded to the position of a colonist, or he may be dismissed. Should a free farmer die, his widow is permitted to retain the holding if she can cultivate it herself, or if there is a member of the family who can do so, he may be admitted into the colony for the purpose of cultivating the holding and supporting the widow. The holdings of free farmers are also, occasionally, inherited by their daughters who marry sons of colonists, who are thus permitted to take up the succession of the farm, and so to avoid the rule of expulsion at maturity. While this is the practice in certain cases the free farmers have no judicial right to their holdings, and may be expelled without compensation for improvements. A free farm consists of two and a half hectares ($6\frac{1}{2}$ acres). For this the free farmer pays an annual rent of from 35 florins to 75 florins (2*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.* to 6*l.* 5*s.* 0*d.*). The rent is payable in January.

The stock supplied to each free farmer by the colony on credit is:—

		£	s.	d.
Cow, value about	-	10	0	0
Rye sown in land, value	-	4	3	4
		<hr/>		
Total	-	14	3	4
		<hr/>		

This amount he is expected to repay at the rate of 12*s.* 6*d.* per annum. The free farmers have, in some cases, two or three milch sheep, and they generally fatten four or five pigs per season. Their principal produce otherwise is potatoes, of which from an average farm from 100 to 200 hectolitres (hectolitre = $2\frac{1}{2}$ Imperial bushels) are sold each season. Butter, to a small extent, is also marketed by the free farmers. The nearest local market is Steenwijk, nine miles distant; there are larger markets at Meppel and Assen, which are reached by rail.

In case of need loans are made by the colony. The average amount of debt due to the colony by the free farmers is 129 florins (10*l.* 15*s.*) per farmer. Two or three farmers are upwards of 40*l.* in debt; 60 or 70 are from 8*l.* to 25*l.* in debt. The total indebtedness of the free farmers is 2,330*l.** This indebtedness is, in some cases, being paid off gradually, but much of it is of old standing, and is now practicably irrecoverable. For so much of it as is of recent date the colony holds a lien over the stock of the farmers. No interest is charged upon these debts.

Orphans and children of paupers are sent by the Poor Law Authorities to the colony, and are boarded with free farmers and labourers. Payment is made by the authorities, or by charitable societies† to the colony for their board, at the rate of 4*s.* 2*d.* per week each. This affords some profit to the free farmer and helps

* Jaarverslag van de Maatschappij van Weldadigheid. 1892, p. 36.

† Eighty-two children are maintained at the colony at the expense of the Burgerlijk Armbestuur te Rotterdam. See Verslag van het B. A. te R.: 1892. p. 4.

him to make ends meet. Children of from four to eight years of age are preferred. Those who come to the colony after they have attained the age of eight years are found to be difficult to deal with.

About one half of the 210 free farms are in good condition.

The population of the colonies declined from 2,007 in 1873 to 1,736 in 1886. The decline was so uniform that in 1889 Mr. Willink suggested that the colony would become extinct by mere depletion.* Since 1886, however, the numbers have been rising as shown by the following table.

TABLE showing the TOTAL POPULATION of the DUTCH LABOUR COLONIES in the under-mentioned years ; together with the number of Births, Deaths, and other particulars.†

—	Total Popu- lation.	Births.	New In- trant Families.	Deaths.	Young Persons left to enter upon Situ- ations.	La- bourers elevated to Position of Free Farmers.	Number of Free Farmers.	Number of La- bourers.	Number of Boarders. ‡
Jan. 1st 1883	1,761	46	3	23	43	4	—	—	—
1884	1,744	42	2	22	50	4‡	—	—	—
1885	1,754	29	7	26	32	4	—	—	—
1886	1,736	27	5	28	—	1	—	—	—
1887	1,796	37	6	22	—	4	—	—	119
1888	1,770	29	7	27	38	6	—	—	—
1889	1,791	33	5	32	64	5	206	83	153
1890	1,830	35	7	23	50	6	209	87	132
1891	1,813	29	10	22	61	2	212	87	164
1892	1,863	45	8	16	65	2	214	91	196

(NOTE.—Where figures are omitted, they are not given in the report.)

The group of colonies, collective statistics of which have been given, consists of Frederiksoord, Willemsoord, and Wilhelmina-soord.

Willemsoord.

On the colony at Willemsoord there are three colony farms ; these are worked by 22 families, consisting in all of 100 persons. These families are engaged wholly in agriculture.

* See Willink, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

† From Jaarsverslag van de Maatschappij van Weldadigheid, 1883 to 1892 (both inclusive).

‡ Four free farmers were also degraded to the position of labourers in 1884.

§ Orphans and children of pauper parents.

In 1892 two labourers were imprisoned for stealing, and six free farmers and three labourers were dismissed for laziness.* On the average one labourer or free farmer absconds every year. Occasionally in such cases attempts are made to carry off stock which has been supplied to the colonist by the colony on credit.

The area of the three colonies together is utilised as follows :—

Cultivated land	-	-	1,204 hectares.†
Roads and buildings	-	-	110 "
Forest and jungle	-	-	445 "
Waste	-	-	350 "
			2,109 hectares.

The following industries are carried on in the colonies :—

Matmaking,
Blacksmithing,
Tailoring,
Carpentry,
Bricklaying,
Basketmaking,
Furniture making,

and the colonists are besides employed in Horticulture, Forestry, and Agriculture.

Six farms, each about 50 hectares, are worked under the control of the director of the colony, with the aid of two under-directors. There are eight foremen, all colonists, one foreman being on each farm. The farm hours are :—

Summer	{	Work	4.0 to 6.0 a.m.
		"	9.0 a.m. to 12.0 noon.
		"	1.30 to 4.0 p.m.
		"	4.30 to 6.0 p.m.
Winter	{	"	6.0 a.m. to 12.0 noon.
		"	1.30 to 6.0 p.m.

Reaping is done by hand-sickle or by scythe.

The six farms belonging to the colony are worked partly by the labourers and partly by the free farmers, who receive a daily wage when so employed. The best of the free farmers find, however, full occupation in working their own land. No agricultural labourers are ever employed on ordinary wage terms.

Last year (1892) the colony produced upon its six farms 12,000 hectolitres of potatoes. The crop was so large throughout Holland that it was found to be impossible to sell the potatoes at a reasonable price, and a large number of pigs were, therefore, bought and fattened, the sale of fat pigs realising 1,000*l*.

Wages are paid by the piece in basket-work and in furniture making. Three professional basket-makers are employed. The

* These all made application to be permitted to return.

† 1 hectare = 2.47, or approximately 2½ English acres.

output of baskets and willow work, tables, chairs, &c., is worth about 21,000 florins (1,750*l.* per year). Workers by piece at basket-making make about 80 cts. (1*s.* 4*d.*) per day.

The adult colonist is almost invariably regarded as a hopeless case. The efforts of the colony are directed mainly to the education of the children. Attendance at the day or evening school is compulsory. There are five elementary schools on the colony lands maintained at the expense of the Government, and, in addition, the colony has established (a) a School of Forestry, (b) a School of Agriculture, (c) a School of Horticulture. In these institutions the children of colonists are trained and sent out at from 20 to 22 years of age to situations. Last year five young men were sent out to the Dutch East Indies.

In the School of Forestry I found 10 children of colonists and two farmers' sons from the locality. The course of instruction extends over two years. The school is under Government inspection. The equipment appears to be adequate.

In the School of Horticulture I found 12 sons of colonists and 12 sons of neighbouring farmers or market gardeners, the latter paying a fee for instruction. Botany is taught as well as practical horticulture; there is a botanic garden, four hectares of garden for experimental work, and an extensive range of hothouses for the use of the school.

The School of Agriculture is also well equipped for the purpose. There are several farmers' sons from the neighbourhood who receive instruction along with the sons of the colonists. The elements of veterinary surgery are taught as well as agricultural chemistry.

Nearly all the cottages of the labourers and free farmers were built about 70 years ago.* They are neither better nor worse than cottages of the same age in the same district. Although they are fairly well built of brick and wood, they are badly designed and are not of such a type as would now be employed for peasants' dwellings. The cowshed and dwelling-house are under one roof, and though a separate entrance is provided, this separate entrance is not used in practice. It is indeed usually blocked up with furniture. Admittance to the living room or rooms is obtained solely through the cowshed, which serves also as a barn and general place of all work. Similar cottages are no doubt to be found in the neighbourhood; but their squalor is undeniable. There can be no doubt, however, that the free farmer has quite as large a stock of furniture and belongings as many peasants working for agricultural wages, and that he lives at a very similar standard of comfort. The cost to the society for renewing the whole of the houses in the colony would be considerable.

A range of houses is being built for old people, each couple or single person having a separate house. No rent is charged for

* The population of the free colonies in 1827 was 2,179; now it is 2,200, or practically the same.

these houses, and the old people make a portion of their living by cultivating the small plot attached to each house.

The director feels the need of more land. If he had more land of the quality readily obtainable in the neighbourhood of the farms, he could for the first year place 50 men on every 100 acres for the purpose of reclaiming it; afterwards, of course, the land would not require nearly so much labour.

The colony is not established upon a religious basis, but there are three churches, one Catholic and two Protestant, in which ministers of these persuasions may hold services.

The Maatschappij van Weldadigheid or Benevolent Society has a large number of branch societies throughout Holland. There are at present (1893) 4,059 members in these branch societies. Each society is entitled to recommend colonists for admission in proportion to its subscriptions to the colony funds. Some societies have not taken full advantage of this provision, while others are considerably in debt to the institution.

The Dutch Free Colonies differ from the German colonies, and follow the English Houses of Industry, in dealing not alone with able-bodied poor, but with impotent poor as well. Thus the finances of the Dutch colonies must be regarded in a totally different light from those of the German colonies. The presence of a proportion of non-producers must make a subsidy necessary.

The statements of accounts in the reports of the Dutch colonies are rather lacking in clearness; some items being omitted because they are held to cancel each other. The figures given at the end of this chapter perhaps offer a fair statement of the finances. It is necessary to state that the authorities of the colonies are not responsible for the form in which the statement appears. The figures are taken from the successive annual reports of the Maatschappij van Weldadigheid, or Benevolent Society.

The cost per head and per family may be calculated as follows:—

—	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
Number of families	—	—	289	296	299
Total population	1,796	1,770	1,791	1,830	1,813
Amount of capital invested - Gulden*	1,531,514	1,338,914	1,339,417	1,324,749	1,340,714
Do. Per head "	741	756	747	724	739
Annual outlay, being loss on colony operations, exclusive of interest. }	22,425	15,089	11,352	16,432	20,350
Do. Per head "	12.5	8.5	6.3	9.0	11.2
Interest on capital at 5 per cent., less amount at credit of interest and rent account. }	61,740	58,367	61,519	61,525	61,499
Do. Per head "	34.3	33.0	34.3	33.8	33.9
Annual cost per head, including interest on capital invested. }	46.8	41.5	40.6	42.8	45.1
Do. Per family "	—	—	252	264	274

* Twelve gulden = 12.

This yields the net result that the capital investment in the Dutch colonies is about 377*l.* per family, and that the annual average cost per family to the colony is about 4*l.* 10*s.*, exclusive of interest on the capital invested. If the interest be included the average cost to the colony is about 22*l.* per annum per family. This, however, does not represent the total cost. The amounts paid by charitable societies on account of specific families are, as shown in the accounts, from 4,000 to 7,000 gulden per year. If this amount be spread over the total number of families, it results that the average annual cost to charitable Holland of the Dutch colonists is about 23*l.* per family. A large part of the capital invested is no doubt represented by the value of the estate.

The chief social importance of the Dutch Free Colonies lies in three features which distinguish them from the German Labour Colonies. These are:—1st, the element of permanence—the free farmers are there for life if they choose; 2nd, the recognition of the family; and 3rd, the education of the children. The farmer and his family live together in one house, the children being taught letters and trained to useful employments. The advantages offered by these features to the colonists are very obvious. The objections to the Dutch system are two:—1st, the greatness of the cost in relation to the smallness of the number benefited; 2nd, the danger of producing a class of workers who tend to become quite dependent—tend, indeed, to produce a permanent race of paupers. The large numbers in the farmers' families, and the tendency shown by the children to return to the colony after having left it, are important elements in the case.

Yet within the limits of the intention of the Benevolent Society, the Dutch colonies need not be regarded as failures. They secure healthy and industrious lives for a number of families, who, but for their presence in the colonies, might become recruits for the criminal or permanently indigent classes. Against the cost of the Dutch colonies, which is admittedly large in proportion to the number of families actually treated, must be set the hypothetical sum of the possible loss to society through depredations, poor relief, and charitable aid, were those who are now in the colonies left to prey upon society. There remains, however, the consideration that the Dutch colonies form really an endowed institution where a privileged few of the Dutch poor live in more or less comfortable circumstances at a cost of about 23*l.* per family per annum to the charitable societies of the country.

Comparison of the Dutch and German Systems.

The Dutch system recognises the family and accepts the responsibility of training the children and finding situations for them outside the colony when they grow up. The German system disregards the family wholly, except in so far as efforts are occasionally made by the directors of the colony to

bring about family reconciliations. The Dutch system provides a permanent home for its colonists; the German system is intended to be a temporary mode of relief. The German system is almost ostentatiously a religious system, the Dutch system lays no stress upon the religious element. The promoters of the German system are optimistic enough to hope that some proportion of those who resort to the colony can be reclaimed, and sent back to ordinary industrial life; those who are carrying on the Dutch system have no such hope, and devote themselves almost wholly to the education of the children. Expensive and limited in its capacity as the Dutch system is when compared with the German, there can be no doubt of the greater grasp of the problem which its method discloses.

The Dutch Penal Colonies.

Up till 1859 the penal or beggar colonies at Ommerschans and Veenhuizen were administered by the Benevolent Society; but in that year the Dutch Government took these colonies over from the Society in order to relieve it from the financial embarrassment in which it had become involved.* There are now two penal colonies in Holland, Veenhuizen for men, and Hoorn for women. The buildings at Veenhuizen are to the extent of about one half of the accommodation of the original buildings of the colony, and are inadequate in many ways. About one half of the buildings are modern, and the equipment, though not quite so good as that of the Belgian colony at Merxplas, is adequate. In the newer building the cubicle system of dormitory has been introduced. In the older buildings hammocks are largely employed. The present population of Veenhuizen is about 2,700 persons, located in three "districts," each containing 900 colonists. All of them have been convicted of begging; a very large proportion are confirmed beggars. The type of men is similar to that which may be found in Merxplas and in the German "Corrections-Anstalten." They appear to be fibreless and irresponsible to an extreme degree.

The colony is situated in the great moor extending between the two railway lines which connect Leeuwarden and Groningen with the system of railways in Central Holland. Forestry, agriculture, and gardening are the employments of the colonists. Though prisoners they enjoy a certain amount of freedom within the limits of the colony, they have an allowance for wages and receive the unexpended balance of these on leaving. The method of administration is similar to that of Merxplas, in Belgium.

* For the early history of the colonies and the reasons for this financial embarrassment, see Willink, *op. cit.*

FINANCES OF THE DUTCH

Debit.

	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
<i>I.—Colony Account, in Gulden</i>					
To administrative costs	14,310	14,200	13,885	13,890	14,086
„ cost of agricultural implements, &c.	2,495	2,582	1,931	2,315	2,421
„ loss on stockkeeping	9,657	2,916	1,483	634	3,743
„ „ nurseries	140	—	—	—	36
„ „ workshops	—	1,907	754	1,318	2,307
„ „ turf cutting	—	100	—	—	—
„ donations and loans to colonists	1,815	2,044	1,711	1,957	1,877
„ cost of unproductive works	371	532	293	384	409
„ maintenance of buildings, bridges, roads, and canals	5,809	5,522	6,428	7,803	8,285
„ miscellaneous expenses	974	1,000	1,045	1,200	1,319
	35,471	31,048	27,245	28,901	34,393

<i>II.—Rent, Interest, and</i>					
To interest upon loans	3,314	2,133	2,913	3,954	3,102
„ depreciation	123	183	118	102	129
„ balance to general account	4,835	7,379	5,452	4,412	5,337
	8,272	9,695	8,483	8,468	8,568

<i>III.—Capital</i>					
To reclamation of land	2,012	—	2,370	543	4,104
	2,012	—	2,370	543	4,104

<i>IV.—General</i>					
To balance of colony account, being loss on operations	22,425	15,089	11,353	16,432	20,259
„ expenditure on capital account	2,012	—	2,370	543	4,104
„ balance carried to capital account	8,465	5,845	563	—	20,134
	32,902	20,935	14,285	16,975	44,506

<i>V.—Capital</i>					
To loans on mortgage	121,840	122,993	122,333	109,996	112,980
„ balance from general account	—	—	—	7,235	—
„ of unmortgaged capital	1,209,674	1,315,521	1,316,085	1,207,518	1,227,754
	1,331,514	1,438,514	1,439,417	1,324,749	1,340,734

BENEVOLENT SOCIETY.

Credit.

—	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
<i>(12 Gulden = £1).</i>					
By profit from agriculture - - -	265	7,458	6,740	5,520	7,636
" " forestry - - -	3,277	1,811	3,181	2,182	2,563
" " turf cutting - - -	646	—	121	89	185
" " nurseries - - -	—	180	178	13	—
" " workshops - - -	973	—	—	—	—
" " miscellaneous sources -	518	775	—	—	—
" receipts from societies sending colonists.	6,144	4,789	4,279	3,028	2,522
" receipts from societies sending boarders.	1,223	940	1,400	1,567	1,138
" balance being loss on operations -	22,425	15,089	11,253	16,432	20,350
	26,471	31,042	27,348	28,801	34,393

Depreciation Account.

By interest from investments - - -	—	1,161	—	—	283
" rents - - - - -	8,156	8,393	8,372	8,367	8,194
" " from property outside of colony -	116	111	111	111	111
	8,273	9,665	8,483	8,468	8,588

Expenditure Account.

By balance to general account - - -	2,012	—	2,370	543	4,104
	2,012	—	2,370	543	4,104

Account.

By balance on rents interest account -	4,835	7,379	5,453	4,412	5,367
" subscriptions, &c.—subscriptions -	1,347	1,597	1,862	1,458	1,294
gifts and legacies	26,706	11,989	7,171	3,820	5,797
collections -	—	—	—	—	35,290
" balance draft upon capital account -	—	—	—	7,895	—
	32,902	20,965	14,285	16,975	44,588

Account.

By amount of capital invested in colony &c.	1,323,949	1,333,068	1,338,554	1,324,749	1,320,660
" balance from general account - - -	6,465	5,246	543	—	20,334
	1,331,514	1,338,914	1,339,117	1,324,749	1,340,994

(c.)—LABOUR COLONIES IN BELGIUM.

The Belgian Labour Colonies were originally founded in 1810. When the independent Kingdom of Belgium was constituted there existed six provincial "Depôts de mendicité," besides two colonies which had been established by the *Société de Bienfaisance*.*

The six dépôts were situated at Namur, for the provinces of Namur and Luxembourg, at Bruges for the two Flanders, at Reckheim for the provinces of Liège and Limburg, at Hoogstraeten for the province of Antwerp, at Mons for the province of Hainault, and at La Cambre for that of Brabant. In addition to these State institutions, there were belonging to the *Société de Bienfaisance*:—

1. The Colony of Merxplas-Ryckevorsel, where for an annual payment of 35 florins able-bodied mendicants were received and forced to work during the period of their detention in the Colony. This payment was made by the communes to which the mendicants belonged.
2. The Colony of Wortel, where the colonists were free to come or go, and where each family was admitted on payment of a sum of 1,600 florins, either by the commune of its domicile or by the subscriptions of the charitable. Each family so planted in the colony received a small house, a garden, a piece of land, one or two cows, sheep, furniture, tools, and clothes. The value of these constituted an advance which remained at the debit of the colonist until by means of the surplus of the annual product of his labour he was able to pay it off.

These Colonies were suppressed in 1841 on the expiry of the contract between the Government of the Netherlands and the *Société de Bienfaisance*, dated 28th January 1823.

At the same time the dépôts of Namur, Mons, and La Cambre were also suppressed, while that of Bruges was devoted to the reception of women and girls over 18 years of age, and that of Reckheim was appropriated for the purposes of an agricultural school for indigent boys of 15 to 18 years of age. Merxplas was also for the time being devoted to the latter purpose.

The dépôt of Hoogstraeten, considerably enlarged, alone retained its original character.

In 1870, and further in 1881, the Belgian Government acquired the former Dutch Colonies de *Bienfaisance* of Merxplas and Wortel and reunited them under the denomination of the Colonies agricoles de *Bienfaisance*.

* Aperçu sur l'organisation des Colonies Agricoles de Bienfaisance de l'État Belge. Hoogstraeten, 1890.

At present these Colonies occupy a total area of about 1,200 hectares (2,964 acres) and are situated wholly in the province of Antwerp in the Communes of Hoogstraeten, Merxplas, Ryckvorsel and Wortel. They are utilized as follows :—

1. The Colony of Hoogstraeten, for the infirm or partially infirm, capable of containing 1,300 persons.
2. The Colony of Merxplas exclusively for able-bodied beggars and vagrants who are committed to the Colony for periods varying from two to seven years. Merxplas is capable of containing 3,600 persons.
3. The Colony of Wortel, containing at present 1,800 persons, of whom 38 are voluntary colonists. Any one may go to this Colony who is able to obtain an order from the authorities of the place of his domicile. The Colonies of Hoogstraeten and Wortel are intended exclusively for the benefit of persons whose poverty has arisen from circumstances beyond their own control.

1st. The Colony of Hoogstraeten (110 hectares) occupies the site, and has absorbed the buildings of an old château. The buildings consist of a large quadrangle. They are surrounded by a moat. The establishment is conducted with military precision. The buildings are large and handsome, and externally and internally are vastly superior to the relatively simpler and less expensive colonies in Germany. The invalids are employed in agriculture and domestic industries so far as practicable.

2nd. The Colony of Merxplas is by far the largest and most important colony of the kind. It is exclusively intended as a penal colony for beggars and vagrants. The men work in gangs in the fields under the supervision of an officer, who is accompanied by a soldier with loaded musket. The following is a list of the employments of 2,853 colonists :—

Agricultural labourers	2,000	Tailors	-	-	88
Farmyard workers	- 137	Painters	-	-	24
Gardeners	- 61	Rope makers	-	-	17
Masons, bricklayers,		Bakers	-	-	21
&c.	- 189	Gas workers	-	-	6
Forgemen	- 121	Other industries	-	-	38
Carpenters	- 139	Kitchen	-	-	12

Among the other industries is milling, at which six or eight men are usually employed, turning two pairs of millstones by hand labour, on the principle of the capstan.

In addition to this large body of men who work for the colony under the superintendence of the officials, about 700 colonists are employed by a private company under contract with the Government. These men work under precisely the same conditions as the others. The company carries on its operations within the precincts of the colony, and does so

wholly with convict labour. The colonists so employed are engaged as follows :—

Carpet and rug-making on hand-loom	-	-	50
Cabinet-making	-	-	30
Mat-making	-	-	500-550
Portmanteau-making	-	-	50
Horse-collar making	-	-	30

The wages paid by this contracting company* are 12, 18, and 21 centimes per day. Wages are at present paid almost wholly by time, but piece-work is being introduced.

The numbers in the colony on 19th August 1893 were—

—	Healthy.	Sick.	Total.
Number in colony - - -	2,826	904	3,730
Discharged - - - -	44	5	49
Admitted - - - -	2	—	2

The men were occupied as under :—

Labour in gangs	-	-	-	2,684
Labour, isolated	-	-	-	49
Undergoing punishment in cells	-	-	-	46
Sick, in hospital	-	-	-	51
Sick, not in hospital	-	-	-	853
Leaving	-	-	-	47
				<u>3,730</u>

The farm stock at Merxplas consists of—

Horses	-	40	Bulls	-	-	3
Draught oxen	-	2	Sheep	-	-	110-120
Cows and young cattle	103		Pigs	-	-	60-70

The work of the colonists has consisted very largely in the construction of the buildings necessary for the large population, and in the making of roads. In the past, plantations have been made to a considerable extent, and land has been reclaimed from the forest, but now the chief part of the work is agricultural. The products of agriculture are mainly consumed in the colony. The products of manufacture, other, of course, than those which form the subject of contract with the company referred to above, are sent to the Government magazines at Brussels for use in the various institutions carried on by the Government.

The wages paid to the colonists who are employed directly in the work of the colony vary according to the nature of the

* Under the management of Mr. Vanschell.

employment, and the length of time which has expired since the entry of the colonist. The rates are 10, 12, 15, 20, 25, 30, to 38 centimes per day. I am informed that the majority of the colonists receive from 30 to 38 centimes per day. The wages are paid partly in cash for canteen expenses—tobacco and beer; the balance is retained by the administration and handed over to the colonist on the expiry of his period of detention.

The following is the time table of the colony:—

5 a.m.	-	-	-	coffee.
8 a.m.	-	-	-	déjeuner.
12 noon	-	-	-	dinner.
6-7 p.m.	-	-	-	supper.

Meat soup is served at dinner twice a week.*

No summary of the employments of the colonists before their entry into the colony is available; but an examination of the books showed that approximately 60 per cent. of the men at present in the colony had been agricultural labourers, about 25 per cent. day labourers, dock hands, &c., and 15 per cent. have been skilled labourers. So far as practicable those who have been skilled labourers are employed in the industries to which they have been accustomed. Thus a large number of masons and bricklayers have been employed in building, and about 150 blacksmiths and other metal workers are employed in the great forge in which fences are made.

3rd. At Wortel there are at present 1,800 persons, including 38 voluntary colonists who are engaged in forestry and agriculture under less stringent conditions than those under which the forced labour of Merxplas is carried on. These colonists are not committed by the tribunal of police, but are sent with their own consent by order of the local authorities of the place of their domicile. The following blank (translation) illustrates the process:—

Ministry of
Justice.

HOUSE OF REFUGE AT WORTEL.

3rd Direction
General.

1st Section.

2nd Bureau.

LIBERATIONS.

To be docketed by the Secretary General of the Minister of Justice and by the principal Director of the Colony.

1. Name.
2. Place and date of birth.
- 2b. Domicile.
3. Profession—
 - (a) before admission.
 - (b) in the establishment.
4. Civil state (with number of children and ages).
5. Term of sentence.

6. Date of decision.
7. „ admission.
8. Where the colonist intends to go, if to a situation, with whom?
9. Judiciary antecedents.
10. Number of preceding admissions.
11. Date of last discharge from a dépôt or refuge.
12. Whether able-bodied or infirm.
13. Whether colonist demands freedom of his own wish.

The 1,200 hectares (2,964 acres) of which the three colonies consist, are utilised as follows :—

	Acres.
Cultivated land - - -	2,148
Non-cultivated land - - -	420
Roads - - -	322
Gardens, &c. - - -	74
	<hr/>
	2,964

By Royal Decree of 2nd August 1878 the colonies were placed under the immediate administration of the Department of Justice.

Their inspection and surveillance is entrusted to a commission, presided over by the Governor of the province of Antwerp, and composed of nine members nominated by the King. This commission meets once a month and delegates to one of its members the duty of visiting the colonies at least once a week.

The staff of the colonies consists of a chief director (whose office is filled by the director of Hoogstraeten), each of the other two colonies having a director, three almoners (priests of the Catholic Church), one at Hoogstraeten and two at Merxplas, three physicians, an accountant, a chief clerk and ten assistants, two superintendents-in-chief, three principal superintendents, and 53 superintendents, an agricultural engineer, two farmers, several farm servants (number varying), master bakers, joiners, gardeners, smiths, masons, bricklayers, gas maker, &c., &c. The knowledge of both Flemish and French is obligatory for all the staff. In addition to the staff a detachment of 150 soldiers is always maintained at the colony.

In the law of 27th November 1891,* which is now the ruling statute on the subject of tramps and beggars, the expression *Colonies de Bienfaisance* does not appear, and the institutions are called *dépôts de mendicité* and *maisons de refuge*. The first class of institutions is devoted to those who are placed at the disposition of the Government by the judiciary authorities for imprisonment in *dépôts de mendicité*; and the second class is to receive those whom the judiciary authorities sentence to residence there, and also those whose imprisonment there is required by the communal authorities.† When imprison-

* Loi du 27 Novembre 1891 pour la Répression du Vagabondage et de la Mendicité. Documents Législatifs. Bruxelles 1893. p. 1.

† It is competent for any man to make application to the communal authorities to be sent to the *maisons de refuge*. This is the only sense in which the voluntary system has remained in the Belgian colonies.

ment is demanded by a commune, the cost of the maintenance of the prisoner is charged to the commune. All individuals found in a state of vagabondage or begging are to be arrested and taken before the tribunal of police. Aliens found begging are to be conducted to the frontier.*

Able-bodied vagrants may be sentenced to detention in the *dépôts de mendicité* for periods of from two to seven years; while infirm vagrants may be sentenced for from one to seven years. The date of liberation depends partly upon the amount at the credit of the colonist in the books of the colony. The cost of maintenance of prisoners is defrayed as follows:—One-third by the communes to which they respectively belong, one-third by the provinces to which they belong and one-third by the State. In certain cases, the whole of the cost is to be defrayed by the commune.

This law was passed after a protracted series of animated discussions, in which the whole policy of establishing *dépôts de mendicité* was sharply criticised by M. Woeste and others.

Among some of the more important points in the speeches of M. Woeste were the following:—"It is said that these *dépôts de mendicité* are not prisons. In reality these *dépôts* imply a *régime* much more severe, much more punitive for those who are detained in them, than the prisons. . . . If I approve of the proposal of the Government to prolong the period of detention . . . in these *dépôts de mendicité*, it is because I am convinced that those who might be disposed to become vagabonds will recoil from this extremity, that they will change their mode of life and acquire regular habits of labour. . . . In these severe measures, I see this advantage, that the population of these *dépôts* would become less numerous, because those who might be sent there would recoil from the imprisonment the *dépôts* would inflict upon them. . . . I am of those who think that when workmen are out of work, when they search well they will end by finding it. While waiting until they do find it, it would appear that legal and private charity has to come to their relief. But I cannot admit that it offers any acceptable remedy to the painful situation in which they find themselves, to send them into the *dépôts de mendicité* or into the houses of refuge from which they emerge only to return."†

"The statistics which have been supplied by the Government show to the full . . . that to send into these *dépôts* workmen temporarily without work, is not the remedy for their distress."‡

* This provision, which was also in the law of 1866, has never been rigidly carried out. There are now about 40 foreigners at Merxplas.

† M. Woeste. Séance du 8 Août 1891. Documents Législatifs. Loi du 27 Novembre 1891. p. 55.

‡ *Ib.*, p. 57.

M. Woeste went on to say that the number of voluntary entrances into the colonies had steadily diminished, and that in face of an increasing population. This showed, he argued, that the communes would not send their unemployed to the colonies. It must be remembered that now Merxplas receives no voluntary colonists at all. These go to the small colony of Wortel. The figures quoted by M. Woeste were as follows :—*

Voluntary entrances	-	-	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.
Merxplas. Able-bodied, healthy			231	203	158	75	78
Hoogstraeten. Infirm	-	-	298	324	263	263	190
Total	-	-	529	527	421	338	268

Under the law of 1866, the colonies were empowered to receive voluntary entrants; workmen out of employment, for example, provided they received authorisation from their local authority (Collège des Bourgmestre et Echevins). The cost of the maintenance of these voluntary entrants in the colony was to be defrayed by their communes. This cost was fixed at 65 centimes per day for healthy adults, and at 85 centimes per day for infirm.

Although the entrance into the colony was free after this fashion, exit from it was not free. A voluntary colonist could not leave until after a stay of one month from the date of his first admission. If, however, he returned to the colony within 12 months of his liberation, he was required to remain for six to 12 months according to circumstances.

The following are the sources of revenue of the Colonies :—

1. The daily allowance charged for inmates, and which has been fixed for 1893 as follows :—

For invalids whose state of health requires special attention, 1.50 fr.

For able-bodied or infirm persons in the houses of refuge whose state of health does not require particular care, 0.78 fr.

2. The profits from agricultural operations.

3. " " workshops.

On entrance into the colony, the colonists are compelled to bathe, and to have their clothes disinfected. Should they have any money in their possession, this money is changed into tokens which are current in the establishment alone.†

After having been examined by the doctor, the colonists are subjected to interrogation by the director as to their antecedents, their profession, and their family condition. An anthropometric examination and description follows, the results being placed in files. Should the antecedents of the new arrival justify the course

* Documents Législatifs, *loc. cit.*

† This was also formerly the case at the Dutch colony of Veenhuizen.

he is sent to labour for a brief period, and the Minister of Justice is recommended to authorise his liberation. Those who are retained are classified as follows :—

Hoogstraeten.—Infirm.

1st section.—Invalids of bad morals and those with whom contact constitutes a moral danger.

2nd section.—Cripples and old men who are unable to gain their means of subsistence, but who can engage in a certain amount of labour.

3rd section.—The infirm, imbecile, and those absolutely unfit for labour.

Merxplas.—Able-bodied.

1st section.—The immoral, unmanageable, incendiaries, and those who are frequently dangerous nuisances. These are confined under a *régime* of isolation in a separate quarter. In this quarter are the workshops of the isolated prisoners where they are constantly under surveillance. Each man sleeps in a closed alcove.

2nd section.—Men who have been under the surveillance of the police, ex-convicts and others whose conduct is bad.

3rd section.—Ex-convicts who have conducted themselves well in the establishment.

4th section.—The new colonist, who has been in the colony once or twice, but who has had no other conflict with the authorities than simple police offences.

Good or bad conduct in the establishment determines the passage of a colonist from one section to another. The members of the different sections never come into contact with those of any section other than their own. They work, eat, and sleep in separate places. They have even separate churches.

The labour of the separate sections is arranged as follows :—

1st section.—Isolated labour, the most irksome on the farm, &c.

2nd section.—Transporting material by means of barrows in gangs.

3rd section.—Agricultural labour, &c.

4th section.—Same as above; but without contact with the 3rd section.

At Hoogstraeten there is a printing office in which some of those who are capable of light employment do printing for a number of the Government establishments.

Religious services are held by the almoners (of the Catholic Church) attached to the colonies. Dissenters may have the ministrations of those of their own creed.

A library is provided for the use of the colonists on Sundays and holidays.

The colony is situated in the middle of a great plain at a distance of about 30 miles from Antwerp. The air is good and the ventilation of the buildings appears to be adequate.

The mean annual number of deaths during the five years preceding 1891 was 113 in a population of 3,260.

Although the conception of the Belgian colonies included the free as well as the penal colony—the free colony for the workmen out of employment and the penal colony for the beggar and the vagrant—the result of the combination in the same place and under the same administration has been the almost total disappearance of the free element. The number of voluntary colonists has never been large and is now insignificant. There appear to be three reasons for this:—

- (1.) The free colony is not really free, a man may enter without being actually committed by a magistrate but he must be sent there by a magistrate's order and he must be paid for by his commune. It may be cheaper for the commune to deal with the man in some other way and if it is there is an inducement for it to do so.
- (2.) The "free" colonist must chafe against the severe discipline of the colony and against association with those who have been sent there by the police. This has only operated prior to 1891, however, as only the Wortel colony now accommodates voluntary colonists.
- (3.) The difficulty of obtaining employment out of the colonies. This is admitted to be almost impossible. The evil reputation of those who form the bulk of the colonists sticks to everybody who goes there, and once within the gates of the colony everything conspires to keep a man there or to force him back again. There seems to be much force in M. Woeste's criticism on this point.

It would appear from the foregoing (1) that the labour colony question is really a twofold one, and that administration by the State of a single colony into which men may enter voluntarily or into which they may be sent by the magistrate must tend to become an institution of the latter sort exclusively; (2) that it is very questionable whether or not such an institution can be regarded as reformatory in any real sense. The Belgian institution seems to me to be simply punitive. The men remain there for a term of years under strict discipline, and in a position in which they are as nearly as possible prevented from doing any harm to themselves or society; but when they emerge, their record precludes their being employed in ordinary industry and they again fall into the hands of the police to be sent back to the colony to harder work and a longer term of imprisonment than before.

(d.)—THE AGRICULTURAL COLONY AT LA CHALMELLE,
DEPARTMENT MARNE, FRANCE.

This colony was founded in January 1892, at the instance of M. Georges Berry, who had visited in the previous year some of the German and Dutch colonies, and presented a report upon them to the Paris Municipal Council.* The farm of La Chalmelle is situated in the Forêt de Traconne, about 50 miles from Paris, and near the railway station of Les Essarts-la-Forêt. The land upon which the colony has been established was bequeathed to the Paris Hospitals in 1663, and has now been leased by the city of Paris to *l'Assistance Publique*, the branch of municipal administration having charge of executive details of this kind. It is intended to make upon the farm improvements to the value of 30,000 francs, the city of Paris paying to *l'Assistance Publique* interest at the rate of 3 per cent. per annum upon the capital employed.

The area of the farm is 128 hectares (316 acres).

The director of the colony, M. Gaston Malet, has had experience in agricultural organisation on a large scale in Portugal.

The staff of La Chalmelle consists of—

A Director with a salary of	-	3,600	frs.	per annum.
2 <i>garçons chefs</i> , each	-	720	"	"
1 farm foreman	-	650	"	"
1 cow-keeper	-	360	"	"
1 smith	-	360	"	"
1 master gardener	-	600	"	"

The total cost of the colony for the year 1892-93 was 32,000 francs, the receipts from the sale of produce were 17,000 francs, and the net cost of the colony for the year was 15,000 francs.

Wages are paid at the rate of 50 centimes per day.

Clothes are supplied free on entrance, but subsequent requirements are debited to the colonists.

The live stock at La Chalmelle consists of—

Horses	-	-	-	-	-	10
Swine	-	-	-	-	-	3
Cows	-	-	-	-	-	50
Young cattle	-	-	-	-	-	3
Bull	-	-	-	-	-	1
Draught oxen (in winter only)	-	-	-	-	-	4
Rabbits	-	-	-	-	-	100

* See *Rapports*, 1892, Conseil Municipal de Paris; also, *Rapport présenté par M. Georges Berry au nom de la Commission d'organisation et de surveillance sur la Colonie agricole de la Chalmelle*. Conseil Municipal de Paris, 1892. No. 207.

The time-table of the colony is as follows :—

4—5 a.m. Coffee, light meal.
 5—10 a.m. Work.
 10 a.m. Déjeuner.
 10.30 a.m.—1.30 p.m. Rest.
 1.30—2 p.m. Lunch (goûter).
 2—7 p.m. Work.
 7 p.m. Dinner.

The length of the working day is thus 10 hours.

The kind of food provided will be seen from the following table :—

Morning.		Evening.	
Early Meal.	Déjeuner.	Lunch.	Dinner.
Cheese.	Lard Soup.	Salad.	Soup.
Bread.	Vegetables.	Cheese.	Vegetables.
Cider.	Cider.	Cider.	Cider.

On Wednesdays and Sundays meat soup is given for dinner.

The ration of cider is one-third litre, or nearly a quart.

Admission into the colony is reserved for those who are recommended by the directors of the night refuges in Paris.* In this respect the system resembles that adopted by the Salvation Army† in London. The superintendents of the night refuges form an opinion as to the willingness for work of those whom they shelter temporarily, and after making inquiry into their antecedents send them to the colony. M. Georges Berry in his report‡ regrets the necessity for this selection. He would prefer that the colony were free to all who need its services. Yet apart from the limited number of places at La Chalmelle, which imposes a necessary limitation in the numbers admitted, it would not be advisable to admit anyone without previous inquiry. Otherwise the colony, M. Berry thinks, might become the resort of the professional vagabond.

Of the 106 entrants into La Chalmelle between the first foundation of the colony in January 1892 and August 1893—

37 left of their own wish.

5 were expelled for disobedience and misconduct.

36 were placed in situations by the colony.

28 were still in the colony on 16th August 1893.

* "*Refuges de nuit.*"

† Report on Labour Colonies, Glasgow, 1892 p. 12

‡ Rapport, etc., p. 8.

The following is a list of the trades of these 106 colonists prior to their entry into the colony.

Day labourers - - -	27	Bag maker - - -	1
Agricultural labourers -	16	Jeweller - - -	1
Gardeners - - -	17	Weaver - - -	1
Florist - - -	1	Locksmiths - - -	2
Shepherd - - -	1	Galoche maker - - -	1
Carman - - -	1	Glass worker - - -	1
Carpenters - - -	3	Soldier - - -	1
Masons - - -	3	Cook - - -	1
Mechanics - - -	6	Waiters - - -	2
Distillery worker - - -	1	Coachmen - - -	2
Navvies - - -	2	Footman - - -	1
Goldbeater - - -	1	Contractor (employé) -	1
Bakers - - -	2	Clerk - - -	1
Confectioner - - -	1	Draper's assistant -	1
Bronze worker - - -	1	Accountant - - -	1
Painter - - -	1	Doctor and librarian -	1
Optician - - -	1		
Leather worker - - -	1		106
Shoemaker - - -	1		

The occupations of those who remained in the colony on 16th August 1893 were as follows :—

Interior -	{	One cook. One clerk. One draughtsman. One bed maker. One waiter. One invalid.	}	6
Cow sheds, &c. -	-	Four colonists.		4
Workshops -	{	One carpenter. One smith.	}	2
Repairs to buildings -	{	One mason. One mason's labourer.	}	2
Gardens -	{	One gardener. Two gardener's labourers.	}	3
Field labour -	-	Ten colonists.		10
Water carrying, &c. -	-	One colonist.		1
				28

The cost of maintaining the colonists varies from month to month. The following are the average costs per man per diem from January to June 1892 in centimes.*

1892.	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April	May.	June.
	47.	59.	62.	68.	69.	78.

* 100 centimes = about 10d.

For the month of June 1893, an analysis of the books of the Colony shows the following result:—

			Frs.	Cts.
Total cost of food per man per day	-	-	0	99
Value of the products of the farm consumed	-	-	0	20
<hr/>				
Net cost in money per man per day	-	-	0	79
General expenditure:—				
Light firing, washing, &c., per man per day	-	-	0	17
<hr/>				
			0	96
<hr/>				

The disciplinary measures are—1°, reprimand; 2°, retention of salary; 3°, detention in the farm on Sundays; 4°, dismissal.

Though the farm buildings are of old date much of the land has never been cultivated, and some of it has been allowed to get into bad condition, the farm having been vacant for two years. During the first year of the existence of the colony (1892) great difficulties were experienced, as the soil is composed of stiff clay and the water lay in the low fields until late in spring. The canals that have been cut will help to prevent recurrence of the difficulty to the same extent.

The type of men in this colony is on the whole superior to that of the German colonies. Here there are no ex-convicts. The causes of resort to the colony, unless the authorities take too lenient a view, are quite different from those which send the German colonist to his colonies. "Family misfortune," "disgust with the life of Paris" and similar causes are given. The men are however picked, and both in Paris and in the colony are the objects of individual care. Theoretically, at all events, much attention is paid to individual needs and peculiarities.

It is too soon to judge of the results of the "picked colonist" system as carried on at La Chalmelle. Of the 106 intrants, 36 have been placed in situations, and reports of a number of these are said to be favourable.* The numbers are however too insignificant to afford foundation for any conclusions.

* Two letters from employers of ex-colonists are printed by M. Berry in the report cited.

(c.)—AUSTRIA AND SWITZERLAND.

I have not been able to extend my inquiries into these countries personally, but I am favoured with information from authentic sources regarding the matters covered by the report.

In AUSTRIA the *Naturalverpflegungsstation*, or relief station, has been adopted by the provincial diets (*Landtage*) of Lower Austria and Moravia. It is expected that Bohemia and Silesia and perhaps also other provinces will follow. According to the Austrian law of settlement, vagrants are deported to their "home parish" at the cost of the State, there to be dealt with by the local authorities. It is alleged that in the provinces where relief stations have been established, there has been a diminution of vagrancy and that the costs of removal have been reduced. The relief stations also serve as labour bureaus, in so far as they exhibit notices of places at which workmen are wanted. In the exercise of this function they compete with the handicrafts (*Kleingewerbe*); and they are said to compete successfully. So far there are no labour colonies in Austria.

SWITZERLAND possesses one institution—the Tannenhof Arbeiterheim—with aims similar to those of the German Labour Colonies. This establishment or, "workman's home," founded on the 1st April 1889, covers about 107 acres, and is carried on by a Society registered as a limited liability company, the by-laws of which describe its aims as follows:—

"By farming an estate to provide a temporary home for those in search of work, as well as for unemployed persons discharged from the prisons of Berne; board, lodging, and wages being provided in return for agricultural labour until permanent work be secured elsewhere."*

The Society at present consists of 30 members, each of whom must own at least one share (4*l.*), and a vote of two-thirds of the members must be recorded in favour of candidates before they are admitted to the Society. Its funds consist of (a) the members' shares, (b) gifts and legacies which are intended to be capitalised. The revenue is made up of (a) profits from agriculture, (b) private gifts and donations, (c) contributions from the State, public bodies, corporations, &c. (d) legacies not intended to be capitalised.

Should the Society be dissolved, which may only take place after a vote to that effect by two-thirds of the members, only those funds may be divided which are made up of the members'

* Statuten des Vereins Arbeiterheim, angenommen in der Hauptversammlung von 2 May 1893.

shares, and any surplus capital must be devoted to the same objects as those for which the Society existed.

The number of colonists sheltered by the colony varies considerably at different seasons of the year. This may be seen from the following statement, extracted from the report of the Society for 1892-3.*

STATEMENT showing the number of Colonists at TANNENHOF
ARBEITERHEIM at the beginning of each of the under-
mentioned months.

Months.					No. of Colonists.	Months.					No. of Colonists.
April	1st, 1892	-	-	-	28	October	1st, 1892	-	-	-	22
May	"	"	-	-	32	November	"	"	-	-	16
June	"	"	-	-	25	December	"	"	-	-	26
July	"	"	-	-	15	January	"	1893	-	-	26
August	"	"	-	-	18	February	"	"	-	-	26
September	"	"	-	-	22	March	"	"	-	-	25

These figures show that the "home" provides for a somewhat larger number of the unemployed during the winter months than during the summer season. This is said to be the more embarrassing from the fact that during winter it is difficult to find outdoor work for the colonists, while in summer, when their labour would be useful, they go elsewhere, and some of those who remain are of little use owing to their want of experience in agricultural work.

The labour of the colonists has been utilised to such good purpose during the last few years, and the land so improved, that the colony could now be worked with about half-a-dozen men. Steps are, therefore, under consideration for acquiring more land and increasing the housing accommodation, so as to avoid the necessity of limiting the number of those for whom shelter can be provided during the severities of the winter.

The receipts for the year ended March 31st last amounted to 728*l.* and the expenses to 718*l.* The colony, including its buildings, plant, and cattle, &c., was valued at 3,774*l.* The liabilities reached 1,868*l.*, leaving a net capital of 1,906*l.*

The *Herberge zur Heimat* or *L'auberge de famille* has been developed to a considerable extent. The *Herberge* at Zürich was founded in 1866, and similar institutions exist in Basle, Berne, Geneva, Vevey, Neuchâtel, Winterthur, and St. Gall.

The *Herbergen* at Geneva afford accommodation for two classes of guests, professional (including commercial persons), and workmen. In the first class are travelling pastors, merchants, and

* Das Arbeiterheim Tannenhof, Vierter Jahresbericht 1 April 1892 bis 31 März 1893.

commercial travellers, and in the second, are agricultural labourers and handicraftsmen in various employments. The following are the numbers of guests:—

—	Professional and Com- mercial, &c.	Workmen, &c.	Total.
1889 - - - -	910	1,083	1,993
1890 - - - -	1,068	1,188	2,256
1891 - - - -	854	1,277	2,131

The average duration of stay in the under-mentioned years was as follows:—

1889 - - - -	4.00 days.
1890 - - - -	3.64 "
1891 - - - -	4.03 "

There is invariably a restaurant attached to the Herbergen.

The system of relief stations* has attained its fullest development in Canton Zürich, where there are 37 stations.† In Glarus,‡ the stations are aided by a small subsidy (in 1890 of 500 frs., in 1891 of 800 frs.) In Schaffhausen the first station was established in July 1889.§

VI.—GENERAL CONCLUSIONS.

The general conclusions that may be drawn from a study of the labour colony system are partly positive and partly negative. The answer to the question—Ought the labour colony system to be adopted by England?—will depend upon the answer to another question. For whom and for what is the labour colony intended?

If the intention is to suppress begging, to clear the tramps from the highways, and the beggars from the streets, to hide them away out of sight, to keep them out of mischief, and to compel them to work, then the labour colony may be a means of accomplishing this. If it is intended to provide a refuge for those who have been in prison, and who for that reason are unable to obtain employment, the labour colony is also a means of accomplishing this.

* The question as to whether relief stations should or should not be State institutions has been much discussed in the Swiss cantons. The opinions of the societies in different centres will be found in the *Zürcher Jahrbuch für Gemeinnützigkeit*, 1891, pp. 198 *et seq.*

† *Ib.* p. 196.

‡ *Ib.* p. 201.

§ *Ib.* p. 202.

It may be worth inquiry whether for these two purposes alone, it were not well to establish labour colonies in England.

Such colonies might be of two orders :—

(a.) Penal colonies like the colonies of Veenhuizen in Holland, and of Merxplas in Belgium; and (b.) Free colonies after the Dutch or German model.*

Careful inquiry would, however, be necessary in the first instance, with the object of ascertaining the numbers of persons for whom it would be necessary to make such provision.

These colonies, if established, would together provide a means of dealing with "the lowest class of occasional labourers, loafers, and semi-criminals."—Class A. in Mr. Charles Booth's classification of the grades of poverty.†

(a.) The colony of the first type would be a prison to which vagrants would be committed by the magistrates for specific periods. The only difference between such a colony and a prison would lie in the character of the labour performed and in the nature of the restrictions upon the liberty of the prisoner. The evidence seems to me to be wholly against the supposition that such institutions are reformatory. They form merely a receptacle for those, who, if they were free, would prey upon society and render means for relieving the deserving poor almost wholly futile. (b.) The colonies of the second type—the free colonies—would serve, as the German colonies do serve, as an alternative to the penal colonies, for precisely the same class. Men might enter the free colony of their own free will and leave it if they chose. No inquiries, other than for statistical purposes, need be made, and all might be received who apply.

The question as to how such colonies should be administered is difficult to answer. As for the penal colonies it may perhaps be held as proved, that they could not safely be entrusted to private beneficence.

This was tried in Holland and in Belgium, and in both cases it was found necessary for the State to take over the institutions. As for the free colonies, the history of the House of Industry and the Parish Farm in England discloses the development of considerable abuses in the management of such institutions by local authorities, while the rapid development of the German system and its success up to a certain point, show that they may be managed without serious disadvantage by privately incorporated charitable bodies, receiving municipal, provincial, or State aid.

As a means of relieving the able-bodied, homeless, non-effective single man—the German system,‡ and as a means of relieving the able-bodied homeless family,—some modification of the Dutch

* On the relative merits of these systems see above p. 316-7.

† C. Booth. *Life and Labour in East London*, Vol. I., p. 33.

‡ About 80 per cent. of the men admitted into the German colonies are unmarried (*Cf. supra*, p. 280); 62 per cent. are homeless (*Cf. supra*, p. 274).

system might conceivably be employed in such a way as to offer advantages over the existing methods of relieving these classes. If all the sums at present expended by indiscriminate and organised charity in such relief were compared with the cost of labour colonies specially designed for these classes, it is probable that the labour colony would be found to be no more expensive to the community than the existing system. The advantages to the community would lie in removing from its streets so many sources of moral and physical contagion, and the advantage to the individuals would lie in a guarantee of subsistence.

On the other hand, the formation of unisexual colonies or of family colonies, both subsidised from sources external to them, tends to develop elements which might result in counterbalancing disadvantages, both social and individual.

Apart from the vagrant, the discharged prisoner and the lowest grade of labour of low efficiency and low *morale*, there is another class for whom the labour colony may be intended, a class much more important to the community than those, viz. :—the unemployed who are willing and able to work, but who cannot get work to do. Can the labour colony system help them? The answer is that it might conceivably do so, provided that the lower grades just mentioned were previously dealt with. A labour colony open to all comers would speedily be occupied by the vagrant and the discharged prisoner. These might not individually remain long in the colony on any one occasion, but they would come and go. The colony would be occupied by the class. This is most amply proved by the history of the German and Belgian colonies. These colonies are not occupied by the worthy unemployed, but by those who have suffered moral as well as material collapse. The hard working man of reputable life who seeks the colony because he is out of employment is exceedingly rare, if indeed he exists at all.* The classes will not mix, to admit the one is to exclude the other.

It would appear then, as one of the main lessons to be derived from the experience of labour colonies on the Continent, that if the labour colony system is adopted, one system of colonies should be established first, for the discharged prisoner, the vagrant and the loafer, on the "open" principle, and another for the worthy unemployed on the principle of "selection" or at least "investigation."

But here there arise many difficulties both as regards administration and economic influence. No system which involves investigation prior to relief can give immediate relief. No system which involves admission into a colony on individual subsistence wage for individual work can deal with the unemployed workman who has a family to support. No system by which the support of the family as well as of the individual is guaranteed, and dealing with existing material in the lower grade

* This applies to the German "open" colonies; see, however, "La Chalmelle," p. 330, which is founded on the principle of selection.

of labour, can result otherwise than in rapid increase in the population for whom support is required.* The fluctuations of employment are so great in England that applications for admission to a labour colony might fluctuate between widely separated extremes. The prompt placing of widely varying numbers of men in suitable employment and in reasonably comfortable conditions of living, is extremely difficult from an administrative point of view. The provision of housing accommodation alone for numbers varying from a few hundreds to a few thousands is a serious practical question. The differentiation of modern industry also constitutes a grave difficulty.† An industrial and farm colony which could offer to each man who applied the opportunity of working at the trade to which he had been trained, would be quite impracticable. The range of industries which it has been found possible to carry on in the colonies is very limited, partly owing to the difficulty of disposing of varied produce, and partly owing to the administrative necessity of concentrating attention upon a few specific and generally rudimentary industries. Were any other plan adopted, it is probable that the waste of material would bring the schemes to grief.

That the labour colony is a means of employing the discharged prisoner and the vagrant with advantage to society, and, on the whole, with advantage to the colonists themselves, there can be little doubt. The advantages outweigh the disadvantages. But for the workman who has been accustomed to regular employment, and who is suddenly thrown out, or, indeed for the intermittently employed low-grade workmen, the labour colony is a very questionable resort—

Firstly. From the point of view of the probable colonist. If he have a house, and a family, he will be unwilling to break up these for the purpose of entering a colony; and it would be inexpedient to attempt to induce him to do so. Whether he have a family or not, he may be so habituated to town life that the stillness of the country would be insufferably wearisome to him. He would become restless, and would speedily leave the colony. The more self-reliant he is the more he would be inclined to do this. If he has been trained to a specific industry he will, especially if he is a mature man, find great difficulty in adapting himself to a new trade, however rudimentary that trade may be.

Secondly. From the point of view of the administration of the colony. While the alert and skilful artizan from the town would undoubtedly make the best colonist, both in a disciplinary and in an industrial sense, he would be likely to remain for so short a time as to tend to make the class of superior men a positive source of loss to the colony.

* See the experience of the Dutch colonies in this respect.

† In Wilhelmshof, *e.g.*, there are at present (August 1893) representatives of 47 distinct handicrafts besides the three large classes—day-labourer, factory labourer, and farm labourer.

There remains, however, the consideration that by a series of comparatively small colonies efficiently managed, single men who tend to drift into the ranks of general labour and thus to suffer themselves to be dragged down into the lower social grades, might recover in fresh country air and in healthy conditions the spring they had lost in the town. As a sanatorium for the discouraged single workman the labour colony might thus serve a useful function. The case of the married workman is much more difficult.

The unemployed married workman cannot be transplanted so easily as the unemployed single workman, and to transplant him to a colony may not be the best mode of dealing with him. If he be a town handicraftsman he may not be willing to go back to the land, and if he will not, what is to be done with him? Excepting to the extent indicated, the continental labour colony system in its present condition does not seem to offer the solution to the problem of dealing with the evils of the want of employment of this class in England.

(ii.) LABOUR BUREAUX AND EXCHANGES IN FRANCE.

A report was issued by the "Office du Travail" early in the present year (1893) under the title of "*Le Placement des employés, ouvriers et domestiques, en France*," in which an account is given of the growth and present operations of the various classes of institutions existing in that country for obtaining workpeople for employers, and employment for workpeople. The chief agencies described are the licensed employment registries (*Bureaux de placement autorisés*), the syndicates of workmen and employers and the Labour Exchanges (*Bourses du Travail*) established by them, the Free Municipal Registries, and the work of Convents and philanthropic agencies, Friendly Societies, and Guilds. The following table, showing the magnitude of the operations of these various classes of agencies in 1891, is abridged from a table published at the end of the report:—

Summary Statement of the Operations of all Classes of Employment Agencies in 1891.

Employment Agencies.	Number in Operation in 1891.	Applications.		Persons Placed	
		For Work.	For Work-people.	Permanently.	By the Day or Temporarily.
Guilds (<i>Compagnons</i>) - -	No. 32	No. 8,288	No. 6,188	No. 6,188	—
Free Municipal Registries -	24	24,806	13,292	10,866	—
Trade Syndicates:					
Employers' - - -	54	32,594	30,851	18,396	490
Workers' - - -	323	123,666	71,639	86,124	8,536
Mixed - - -	13	2,558	1,892	1,896	1,306
Licensed Employment Registries.	1,574	2,496,079*	938,337*	629,459*	361,991*
Friendly Societies - -	59	35,041	33,059	17,794	16,000
Convents and Philanthropic Agencies.	76	133,036	25,911	26,227	107,481

* These figures only relates to the 994 private registry offices which furnished information.

It will be seen that the most extensive of these agencies are the licensed employment registries. Of the other agencies those of greatest interest for the purposes of this Report are the Labour Exchanges and the Free Municipal Registries. A brief account of these three classes of organisations is therefore appended.

(a.) LICENSED EMPLOYMENT REGISTRIES.

The report gives the following account of the regulations under which these registries are conducted :—

The draft decree proposed by the Commission on Employment Registries was sanctioned by Louis Napoleon, and promulgated on the 25th of March, 1852. It is under this decree, possessing the force of law, that the business of employment registries has since been conducted, so that it is well that the text should be given here *verbatim*.

DECREE OF THE 25TH OF MARCH, 1852.

Art. 1.—Henceforward no one will be allowed to carry on an employment registry, under any pretext, or for any professions, situations, or employments whatever, without a special permit issued by the municipal authority, only to be granted to persons of established repute. Present proprietors of registry offices are accorded a delay of three months in which to obtain the said permit.

Art. 2.—The application for a licence must state the conditions under which the applicant proposes to conduct his business.

He must conform to these conditions and to the regulations which shall be framed in virtue of Art. 3.

Art. 3.—The municipal authority shall supervise the registry offices, so as to ensure that order be maintained therein, and that they be conducted honestly. It shall draw up the rules necessary for this purpose and regulate the list of charges leviable by the owner.

Art. 4.—Any contravention of Art. 1, of the second paragraph of Art. 2, or of the regulations made in virtue of Art. 3, shall be punishable by a fine of from 1 to 15 francs, and imprisonment not exceeding five days, or by either of these penalties. The maximum of the two penalties will always be applied to an offender, who within the previous twelve months has been convicted of an infringement of the present decree or of the police regulations aforesaid. These penalties are apart from any restitution or damages entailed by the acts with which the proprietor is charged. Art. 463 of the Penal Code applies to the above-named contraventions.

Art. 5.—The municipal authority may cancel the licence of—(1) persons who have incurred, or should hereafter incur, one of the penalties provided by Art. 15, paragraphs 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 14, and 15, and by Art. 16 of the Decree of 2nd February 1852; (2) of persons who have been, or may hereafter be convicted of conspiracy; (3) of persons who may hereafter be condemned to imprisonment for contravention of the present decree or of the regulations framed in virtue of Art. 3.

Art. 6.—The powers above conferred on the municipal authority shall be exercised by the Prefect of Police for Paris and the jurisdiction of his prefecture, and by the Prefect of the Rhône for Lyons and the other communes in which he discharges the functions conferred on him by the law of 24th June 1851.

Art. 7.—The withdrawals of licences and the regulations issued by the municipal authority in virtue of the foregoing provisions shall not take effect until after the prefect has approved of them.*

The following statement based on a table published in the report (p. 468) gives a summary of the work of these employ-

ment registries and the extent to which they touch persons engaged in various groups of trades:—

Summary of the Licensed Registry Offices and their Operations according to Trades.

Trades, &c.	No. of Registry Offices.	No. which furnished informa- tion.	Annual Number of			
			Applica- tions for Work.	Offers of Work.	Persons Placed	
					Perma- nently.	By the Day or Tempo- rarily.
Butchers, including Pork Butchers.	18	17	54,902	31,063	16,960	2,436
Bakers - - - -	91	81	121,118	47,332	25,971	40,114
Brewers - - - -	1	1	—	—	—	—
Hair Dressers - - -	30	29	84,887	22,929	15,006	42,047
Shoemakers - - - -	1	1	6,000	4,800	1,700	—
Servants - { Domestic -	1,696	717	1,378,124	611,774	254,716	52,440
	{ Farm -	40	37	10,976	8,448	5,083
Clerks - - - -	4	4	20,340	3,120	1,776	252
Provision Dealers' Assistants -	2	2	8,400	7,200	5,760	240
Waiters - - - -	74	61	712,848	149,964	83,953	129,330
Grocers' Assistants - - -	3	2	20,080	23,220	24,400	—
Millers' - - - -	8	8	1,534	1,284	1,052	228
Cowmen - - - -	1	1	6,000	3,000	1,800	360
Schoolmasters and Gover- nesses, Gardeners - - -	17	9	24,840	12,122	6,480	296
Farriers and Wheelwrights -	3	3	966	788	752	—
Sailors - - - -	22	9	6,468	1,668	1,200	—
Pastry-cooks, Cooks - - -	8	8	29,802	14,708	4,938	29,400
Tailors - - - -	1	1	24	24	24	—
Dyers - - - -	3	1	200	150	150	—
Total - - - -	1,374	904	2,205,979	922,237	456,460	261,991

(b.) LABOUR EXCHANGES ("BOURSES DU TRAVAIL.")

The following account is given in the report (pp. 150 ff.) of the establishment and history of Labour Exchanges managed by Trade Syndicates:—

"The idea of creating labour exchanges is usually attributed to M. de Molinari, the economist, who really only originated the publication of offers and applications for work when in 1846 he opened the columns of his paper, the *"Courier Français,"* in Paris to the corporations, and subsequently, when, with the same object, he started the paper *"La Bourse du Travail"* in Brussels.

The first idea of a real exchange for workpeople appears rather to belong to M. Doucoux, prefect of police in 1848, who at the time pre-

presented a complete scheme of organisation accompanied by a plan, to the Municipal Council of Paris.

In February, 1851, M. Doucoux submitted the same proposal to the Chamber, the text being as follows:—

Art. 1.—There shall be erected in Paris, under the direction of the State, a Labour Exchange.

Art. 2.—This exchange, divided into sections for the different classes of trades, shall contain employment registries for workmen, and all information adapted for the purpose of enlightening the public as to the different phases of labour.

The cost of commodities, the rates of wages, in fact, all data interesting to employers, workmen, producers and consumers will there be collected and carefully explained.

Art. 3.—This exchange shall be built according to the plans and estimates drawn up by order of the Prefect of Police and handed to the Municipal Council of Paris on the 10th October 1848.

Art. 4.—A supplementary vote of 300,000 francs shall for this purpose be inserted in the budget of expenditure for the year 1851.

This bill was rejected, or rather returned to the Municipal Council of Paris, as being exclusively communal in its character.

The question of labour exchanges was then lost sight of, at least in France, until M. Delàttre and some of his colleagues revived it by lodging the following proposal at the office of the Paris Municipal Council, on the 24th February 1875.

“The undersigned request that measures be considered for establishing at the entrance of the Rue de Flandre a labour exchange, or at least a refuge enclosed and covered so as to shelter the numerous groups of workpeople who collect every morning for the purpose of being hired at the docks and other works.”

This proposal, which only interested a single district, was made general by the committee appointed to examine it, and the Administration was invited to present a scheme for “the establishment of labour exchanges in all places where workmen of different trades assembled for the purpose of being hired.”

Nevertheless, on the 18th July 1878, the Council specially voted the construction of a permanent shelter in the Boulevard de la Chapelle.

After this resolution the organisation of labour exchanges remained in abeyance until the 19th of November 1883, when M. Manier forwarded to the Municipal Council of Paris the following resolution adopted at a meeting held on the 16th of the same month at the Salle Rivot.

“Considering that the labour exchange will at least have the effect of—

- (a.) Suppressing the *Places de grève*.*
- (b.) Facilitating the placing of workers;
- (c.) Suppressing the Registry Offices;
- (d.) Centralising the supply and demand with a view to rapidly bringing workers into relation with work.
- (e.) Establishing direct relations between the chambers of syndicates or corporate associations, as well as between all workers in general whether they belong to unions or not,

the assembly, having heard the details of the proposal, invites the Municipal Council to vote the said proposal in its entirety in the present session.”

This petition gave rise to further deliberations and schemes in the Municipal Council and the Administration, the original character of which

* Certain localities in Paris, where it was customary for persons seeking work to assemble for the purpose of being hired by employers.

has been modified by the Law of March 21st, 1884, granting to trades unions the right to organise without restriction.

The report, presented by M. Mesureur, on the 5th November 1886, in the name of the Labour Commission, on the establishment of a labour exchange at Paris, summarises in the following paragraph the new light in which this exchange was considered from that time forward :—

“In adhering to the standpoint of liberty of contract, you have the right if not the duty to furnish labour with the means of maintaining a struggle against capital with equal and legal weapons; without the labour exchange, the existence of syndical chambers will always be precarious, the charges which they entail being prohibitive to the majority of workmen.

It is therefore necessary that they should have premises and offices to which every one may come without fear of having to sacrifice more time or money than he can afford; the free and permanent use of the meeting rooms will enable workers to discuss more fully and accurately the numerous questions which interest their trade or affect their wages; they will have for their guidance and instruction all means of information and correspondence, the resources furnished by statistics, a library with books on economy, industry and commerce, and the course of production in every industry, not only in France, but in the whole world.

Perhaps we shall then witness the establishment of veritable labour councils.”

It was then in response to these numerous requirements that the Municipal Council of Paris decided to establish a central labour exchange, and that a first branch of this exchange was provisionally established in the old Salle de la Redoute, 35, Rue Jean-Jacques-Rousseau, where it was opened on the 3rd February 1887.

The central exchange itself was subsequently built in the Rue du Chateau d'Eau, near the Place de la République, and opened on the 22nd of May 1892.

The example of Paris has, since 1887, been followed by several provincial towns, and labour exchanges are multiplying from year to year.

The number of trade syndicates acting as employment agencies in 1891, was 3,253; and the following table, giving a summary of their operations in that year, so far as particulars were obtained, is based on a table published on pp. 521–2 of the Report :—

Summary Statement of the Operations of Trade Syndicates as Employment Agencies in 1891.

Description of Registry.	Number of Registries to which particulars given relate.	Number of Applications for Work.	Number of Applications for Work-people.	Number of Persons placed	
				Permanently.	Temporarily.
Employers' Registries	54	22,504	20,851	18,306	480
Workers' "	323	122,006	71,630	86,014	8,888
Mixed "	13	2,553	1,863	1,896	1,306
Total . .	390	147,118	94,373	106,216	10,594

Since the report was published the General Council of the Paris Labour Exchange has been dissolved owing to the refusal of certain trade unions attached to the Exchange to comply with the Law of 1884. The following table, based on a statement published in the Report (pp. 506-7), shows the magnitude and character of the operations of the Paris Labour Exchange as an employment agency during the year 1891.

Statement showing the Number of Applications Registered and the Number of Persons for whom Permanent or Temporary Employment was obtained during the Year 1891 by the Trade Syndicates belonging to the Paris Labour Exchange.

Unions.	Applications Registered.	Persons placed Permanently.	Persons placed Temporarily.	Remarks.
Jewellery and Parts thereof	92	80	—	
„ Imitation	19	18	—	
„ Gold and „ Joailleries.	98	96	—	
Hosiery	21	17	—	
Butchers (1)	12,042	9,908	—	(1) We have organised a new system of placing which enables us to obtain work for a larger number of our members.
Bakers	2,405	2,320	298	
Engine Drivers	53	44	—	
Carpenters (<i>Solidarité</i>)	115	111	—	
Iron Constructors	15	15	—	
Cooks (2)	1,806	998	1,106	(2) Several of those placed „temporarily” were not removed from this register, as their employment was only casual.
Boiler-makers	380	263	—	
Accountants (Clerks)	46	47	—	
Shirt Cutters	216	216	—	
Cutters & Stitchers (Shoes)	246	235	—	
Hair Dressers (3)	2,562	2,385	—	(3) These figures relate to the last four months of the year. Previously the returns were made to the Municipal Council.
Coppersmiths	432	421	—	
Shoemakers of France (4)	307	201	—	
Shoemaking (<i>Federation</i>)	—	12	—	(4) Operations have been much restricted in consequence of difficulties which arose in the working of our office.
„ (<i>talons Louis XIV.</i>)	133	106	—	
„ (<i>C. S.</i>) (5)	92	47	—	
Sewing	78	62	—	(5) The three Shoemakers' Unions are now amalgamated into one Syndical Chamber.
„ Ladies ”	1,711	1,307	—	
Colour Draughtsman	75	70	—	
Leather Gliders	9	8	—	
Clerks, &c.	530	494	—	
Federation of Metallurgy (6)	107	102	—	(6) These places were secured by different corporations, chiefly artisans, but connected with metallurgy.
Strikers (Smiths')	146	131	—	
Smiths and Locksmiths (<i>Forgerons-Serruriers</i>)	22	15	—	
Bag and Purse Clasp-makers	—	2	—	

Unions.	Applica- tions Registered.	Persons placed Per- manently.	Persons placed Tem- porarily.	Remarks.
Tin-workers	73	68	—	
Hotel Waiters	1,963	963	97	
Engraving (<i>Federation</i>)	43	43	—	
Copper-plate Printers	129	121	—	
Typographic Printers	161	160	—	
Gardeners	14	14	—	
Lithography (<i>Federation</i>)	180	173	—	
Coffee House Keepers	2,030	766	1,302	
Engineers (<i>Union</i>)	1,401	1,336	—	
„ Modellers	32	31	—	
Cast-iron Moulders	10	5	—	
Joiners (<i>C. S.</i>)	101	72	—	
„ (<i>Union Syndicale</i>)	43	38	—	
Electrical Fitters	131	133	—	
Farriers	447	413	—	
Page Numberers	31	31	—	
Clock and Watch Makers	—	3	—	
House Painters (7)	603	580	—	(7) During several months of the year 1891 the number of persons out of work was very small.
Paper Stainers	23	21	—	
French Painters	231	236	—	
Sign Painters	152	148	—	
Lacemakers, by Machine	—	5	—	
„ by Hand	23	23	—	
Photo-engravers	53	48	—	
Pastry Cooks	2,640	1,968	112	
Paper Rulers	161	139	—	
Newspaper Employés (8)	190	163	—	(8) A large number were placed by members without the mediation of the office of the Union, the exact number not being known.
Wooden Baluster Makers	32	32	—	
Locksmiths (<i>Serruriers</i>)	515	303	—	
Stone Setters	—	12	—	
Ladies' Bag and Travelling Bag Makers	20	20	—	
Upholsterers (Female)	—	15	—	
„ (Male)	70	53	—	
Turncooks	311	267	—	
Navvies (9)	192	141	—	(9) Our Syndical Chamber increases its membership every day; we shall soon be able to engage regularly in the work of placing.
Scourers (Dyeing) (<i>C. S.</i>)	67	32	—	
Dyers	47	27	—	
Commercial Travellers	1,341	1,326	—	
Bed Upholsterers	—	2	—	
Total	37,142	29,429	2,514	

(c) FREE MUNICIPAL REGISTRY OFFICES.

The next class of institutions to be considered is that of the Free Municipal Registry Offices. With regard to these registries the report states (p. 569) :—

"The want of success attending the experiment made in carrying out the decree of the 8th March 1848, by which the Provisional Government established a free information bureau in each of the *mairies* of Paris, for a long time discounted the idea of free municipal registry offices.

"Some of the municipalities, especially those which administer the *arrondissements* of Paris, revived this idea in 1886 in consequence of the agitation against the private registry offices, and, following their example, several other towns have established free registry offices, or encourage private undertakings established with this object."

The following table taken from the Report (p. 611) shows the scope of the work of these Registries in 1891 :—

Summary Statement of the Number of Applications for Work and Workpeople Registered, and the Number of Persons Placed by the Free Municipal Registry Offices in operation in 1891.

Departments.	Towns.	Date of Establishment of Office.	Number of		
			Applications for Work.	Applications for Work-people.	Persons placed.
Gironde	Bordeaux	1888	3,161	734	696
Marne	Sainte-Ménéhould	"	90	90	90
	Vitry-le-François	"			
	Sézanne	"			
Nord	Lille	1884	1,248	194	—
	Cambrai	1882	100	100	100
	Candry	"	24	24	24
Orne	Flers	"	74	74	74
	La Ferté-Macé	"			
Seine	1st Arrondissement	Oct. 1889	1,410	1,085	1,009
	2nd "	April 1891	975	285	150
	3rd "	Oct. 1888	4,500	5,000	4,000
	4th "	March 1889	2,104	956	483
	5th "	May 1889	284	284	284
	6th "	Jan. 1889	4,000	1,900	1,500
	13th "	Sept. 1891	492	153	101
	14th "	May 1889	1,000	670	604
	15th "	Nov. 1886	1,000	715	715
	16th "	July 1887	2,743	765	627
	Levallois-Perret	Oct. 1883	1,600	400	400
Total			24,805	13,292	10,856

This table shows that the most important free municipal registries are those in Paris, those outside the Department of the Seine, with the exception of that at Bordeaux, being comparatively unimportant.

The following is a description of the work of the oldest of these offices, viz., that of the 18th *Arrondissement* (pp. 599-600), which will serve as a type of those established in the various districts of Paris:—

“The free municipal registry office of the 18th *Arrondissement* was founded on the 15th July 1887. It is conducted with a subsidy of 2,000 francs from the municipal council. An accountant, who receives 60 francs per month, attends at the office every evening from 7 till half-past 9. A clerk carries the letters, the object of which is explained further on, and receives for this service 40 francs per month, bringing the expenses for staff to 1,200 francs.

A sum of 800 francs then remains for expenses of printing, postage, and advertising; the latter takes place by means of circulars, placards, newspaper reports and notices left with tradespeople.

The two officials are placed under the exclusive supervision of a committee of control consisting of the *maire* as president, some deputies, and five members of the *bureau de bienfaisance* (two governors and three commissaries); one of the officials registers the applications for work, and the other the applications for workpeople.

Registration of applications for work takes place on presentation of a document stating the address, together with certificates, work books and references of candidates; in addition, for the greater convenience of employers, a desk has been put up in the waiting room on which are placed printed forms which employers have only to fill up, and put into a box opened every evening.

Each evening, after the closing of the office the accountant, following the order in which the applications for work have been registered, endeavours to meet the applications for workpeople and sends letters by the clerk to the parties interested, which serve them as introductions to employers.”

In order further to give an idea of the scope of the operations of this registry the following table is inserted, giving particulars of the number and occupations of persons placed in situations through its agency during the year 1891 (pp. 601-2).

STATEMENT of the Number of Persons placed in 1891 by the Free Municipal Registry Office of the Eighteenth *Arrondissement* of Paris, distinguishing the principal Occupations of those placed.

Occupations.	Number Placed.	Occupations.	Number Placed.
<i>Men:—</i>		<i>Women:—</i>	
Clerks, commercial employés, &c.	67	General servants . . .	254
Barmen	25	Charwomen	57
Message and shop boys . .	31	Cooks	38
Mechanics	18	Sempstresses	20
Miscellaneous	30	Miscellaneous	25
Total men	180	Total women	408
Boy apprentices, paid or not	37	Girl apprentices, paid or not	6

(iii.) THE BUREAU OF INDUSTRIES IN NEW ZEALAND.

During the severe depression of trade which for some time past has prevailed throughout the Australasian Colonies, many schemes have been started by the various Colonial Governments to assist unemployed persons by helping them to obtain work, by providing State employment on relief works, and by developing projects of land settlement.

A detailed account of the action of the Government in New Zealand with regard to the unemployed is given below, based on the two last annual reports of the Bureau of Industries.

The Report of the Bureau, presented in July 1892 to both Houses of the General Assembly, states that:—

“A ‘Bureau of Industries’ was established by the New Zealand Government in June 1891, under the direction of the Hon. W. R. Reeves, Minister of Education and Justice. The objects desired by the Government were the compilation of statistics concerning the condition of labour generally; the establishment of agencies for reporting the scarcity or overplus of workers in particular districts; the transfer of such workers from overcrowded localities to places needing labour; and, generally, the control of all industries for the physical and moral benefit of those engaged therein.

“The pressing difficulty at the time the bureau was inaugurated was the presence of ‘unemployed’ labour in the chief towns of the colony. The centralising tendency of modern institutions is one of the pre-disposing causes of this plethora of workmen appearing in the cities, aided by the displacement of hands by labour-saving machinery on farms; but these influences were greatly augmented by the cessation (or contraction) of public works consequent on the exhaustion of foreign loans. It was necessary that some outward set should be given to the human tide, and that every facility should be given to labourers to proceed to available work in out-districts.

“For this purpose 200 agencies were established, for economical reasons the agents being selected from officers already in the Government service, and in the country districts the duties generally being allotted to sergeants of police and local constables, as these officers are thoroughly acquainted with the needs and capabilities of the population surrounding them. These agents forward on the last day of every month a schedule stating particulars as to unemployed persons in their district, and make report as to the various works, private and public (if any), in their locality needing more workmen. In this manner the *minus* and *plus* quantities of available labour can be generally equalised.

“On ‘unemployed’ persons presenting themselves for engagement their names are entered upon schedules, which declare (for statistical purposes only) the age, dependent family, time out of work, &c., of each applicant; and suitable employment (if possible) is offered, men with families having preference. They are assisted by means of railway passes, in some cases given free to those seeking work for themselves, but given to those proceeding to engagements only as advances, orders on the employers against future wages being signed by the men. Most of the said orders on future pay are honoured when matured.

"Every effort, short of espionage, is used to ascertain the *bona fides* of applicants and to prevent the railway-passes falling into the hands of rogues.

"... The total number assisted to employment from the 1st June, 1891, to the 31st May, 1892, was 2,974, of whom 2,000 were sent to private employers and the others to public works."

The system under which the public works above spoken of have been carried on, is thus described :—

"The new system is that of constructing roads and railways by what are called co-operative contracts. In these, a small party of men, generally six in number, is allotted a certain section or length of road or line; one of them is elected a 'ganger' and trustee for the others, to deal for them with the Government. The Government engineer states a price for the portion of work, and, as this is done by an unprejudiced officer, it is generally accepted without murmur by the men." Progress payments are made fortnightly, for the benefit of the men's families, and the whole amount is paid up in cash on the work being passed by the engineer.

Another measure taken by the Bureau is—

"the issue to the Bureau agents of labour coupons, which are given in small quantities to unemployed in country districts, and which enable the bearer to get food, bed, &c., in certain hotels and lodging-houses at reduced rates. Employment being obtained, the coupons are no longer allowed to be used, but full prices are charged."

The report also describes a scheme contemplated by the Government for the establishment of State Farms for the unemployed. The second report (April 1892—March 1893) states that delays had occurred in the carrying out of this scheme, but that land was being secured for the purpose.*

Tables appended to the last-mentioned report show the number of persons actually assisted by the Department during the year ending March 31, 1893. They set forth the occupations of those dealt with in different centres of population, and in a summarised form for the whole colony. The number of men assisted was 3,874, these having 7,802 dependants, making a total of 11,676 persons. This gives, as the result since the establishment of the bureau in June, 1891 (one year and ten months), the number of 6,467 men assisted, these having 12,531 dependants, being a total of 18,998 persons.

* A report in the "Argus," dated 15th May, 1893, states that the New Zealand Government has set apart several blocks of bushland for carrying out a scheme for settling the unemployed on the land.

9,900 acres have been allotted for this purpose, viz :—

2,500	acres in the Auckland district
2,500	" Taranaki "
2,900	" Wellington "
1,500	" Otago "
1,500	" Southlands "

After comparing the bureau with those of the other Australasian Colonies the report proceeds :—

“It will soon be necessary in New Zealand to gravely consider the subject of the classification and employment of the poorer members of our society. The present system of charitable aid is faulty in the extreme, and it will need the attention of our wisest men to organise a scheme that will deliver us from the network of our present difficulties. The dependent classes should be divided into three distinct orders—viz., the helpful poor, who only need guidance and direction to enable the work and the worker to be brought together; the helpless poor, who are to be regarded as subjects for benevolent aid; and the criminally-lazy poor, who should be compelled to work, if necessary, under restriction. The organisation of the whole could only be attempted by some strong central power having control and direction of all charitable aid—both that which is now administered by means of private beneficence (unequally collected by the voluntary self-taxing of the generous) and that granted by the State to hospitals, lunatic asylums, orphan asylums, &c. Our present attitude is only a confession of weakness and of inability to grapple with fast-converging difficulties.”

The following Tables I. and II. are based on particulars published in the Report :—

TABLE I.—Showing the numbers assisted by the Bureau in the five chief Districts of the Colony, from 1st April 1892 to 31st March 1893, together with the places from which they came.

	Auck-land.	Christ-church.	Dunedin.	Well-ington.	Gis-borne.	Total.
Total number assisted by the Bureau	372	547	763	1,301	201	3,874
Total number of persons dependent upon applicants.	576	1,675	2,266	2,951	335	7,803
Number sent to private employment	263	240	464	1,200	201	2,518
Number sent to Government Works	9	307	309	731	—	1,356
Number of wives sent to rejoin husbands	—	3	20	34	—	56
Number of children sent to rejoin fathers	—	14	62	92	—	168
Places of origin of those assisted :—						
North Island	281	2	—	871	168	1,322
South Island	17	540	745	929	26	2,357
Victoria	6	5	1	36	4	52
New South Wales	43	—	3	79	2	124
Queensland	4	—	—	3	—	7
Tasmania	3	—	8	14	—	25
South Australia	3	—	—	7	—	10
Great Britain	15	—	6	55	1	77

TABLE II.—Showing the Occupations of the Applicants and the Description of Work found for them in the Year 1892–93.

Trades.	No. of Applicants.	No. sent to Private Employment.	No. sent to Government Works.	Trades.	No. of Applicants.	No. sent to Private Employment.	No. sent to Government Works.
Building trades :—				Clothiers :—			
Bricklayers -	10	5	5	Drapers -	2	2	—
Carpenters -	106	66	36	Tailors -	5	5	—
Painters -	15	9	6	Printing and publishing :—			
Stonemasons -	30	6	24	Compositors -	12	9	3
Others -	4	2	2	Printers -	15	15	—
Agriculture :—				Others -	4	4	—
Farmers -	16	16	—	Leather workers :—			
Farm-labourers -	136	134	1	Bootmakers -	24	23	1
Grooms -	13	13	—	Fellmongers -	6	6	—
Ploughmen -	5	5	—	Saddlers -	1	1	—
Rabbiters -	46	46	—	Seafaring men :—			
Station hands -	27	27	—	Firemen -	8	8	—
Bushmen -	450	353	97	Seamen -	41	40	1
Others -	15	14	1	Wood workers -	10	10	—
Mechanics :—				Professional men -	13	12	1
Smiths -	33	21	12	Clerks -	16	13	3
Engineers -	20	17	3	Flaxmillers -	16	16	—
Ironworkers and Moulders.	10	8	2	Miners -	52	44	8
Engine-drivers -	5	2	3	Miscellaneous trades -	50	42	8
Food trades :—				General labourers -	2,567	1,439	1,123
Bakers -	10	8	2				
Butchers -	16	15	1	Total -	3,874	2,518	1,256
Cooks and waiters	59	58	1				
Others -	5	5	—				

The following extracts from the reports of the branch bureaux at Auckland, Wellington, and elsewhere, afford some idea of the method of working. The report from Auckland states that :—

“ This department was opened on the 9th May 1892. Up to present dates 413 persons have been found in work, or assisted to do so—private employment, 402; public works, 11. Large numbers besides the above called, and were supplied with any information available as to the best districts and methods of finding work. During the harvest season I refused to book any one, simply directing them to the agricultural districts, where I knew men were in demand. When the bureau was first opened, employers seemed doubtful that the class of men which would be sent through the bureau would be inferior workmen. I opened communication with as many contractors and other employers as I could find, assuring them that suitable men would only be sent, the result

being that, after a trial, I generally received information that they (the employers) were suited.

"The difficult phases of the unemployed that I met were the following: A few men past the prime of life, who, from adversity or other causes, had now for the first time to turn to labour for subsistence. As a matter of fact, employers in the present state of the labour market will not employ this class of men. No matter how willing they are to work, they are wanting in physical energy, and are unskilled in handling tools or implements of labour. It would, I am of opinion, be a wise and kind consideration if some kind of relief work could be provided for this class of men, if only for a time, to enable them to get trained and inured to manual labour.

"Married men with families, who are living from hand to mouth, find it hard to get any distance to look for labour, and in the meantime their families would be destitute, so as a rule they are compelled to stop about town, picking up any odd jobs that may turn up. These men are, therefore, at many times to be classed as 'unemployed.'

"There is still another class, and an increasing one, to swell the ranks, namely, young fellows who have always lived in towns, and were not brought up to any trade or calling. These, from the mode of life, become enervated and unfit for country work, and, in a majority of cases, feel little inclination. I succeeded last winter in finding employment for a good number of this class, but, as a rule, they soon drifted back to town, and very soon impossibly spent their earnings without looking out for more work. If these young fellows would only stay out of town it would give a better chance to the men with families I have already mentioned.

"Seeing the large numbers lately arriving by the Australian boats, I apprehended that the bureau would be rushed, but up to the present there is scarcely any perceptible difference in the labour market. A good many of the new arrivals called, but all received the same answer 'Take to the country,' which they apparently have done. As a rule they were a fair class of workmen (many old New Zealanders), and, I may say, few have asked for assistance, and, further than information and advice, none has been given. At the present, as bushfelling and clearing has not as yet set in, labour is quiescent, and there is no direct outlet, but, from deductions, I am of opinion that able and willing workmen taking to the country will not go long unemployed. Except in some special cases, I do not believe in booking all and sundry who apply. I think it better to give information and encourage the men to seek for themselves than to lead them to hang around waiting for the bureau to find them work. As the winter approaches there is no doubt that the question will become more pressing; but, if some unforeseen event, such as a large influx, does not occur, I think that by the judicious issue of a few railway-passes and steamboat fares (the latter of which have been reduced by the shipping companies of Auckland in a very liberal manner), guarantees for refund being got where possible, the difficulty can fairly be coped with."

The report from Gisborne states that—

"since the opening of the bureau in April last 205 men have been found employment The bulk of the men have been employed at bushfelling and on road works."

The report from Wellington states that—

"During the winter months of last year we were enabled to find for a large number of men work at bushfelling for private employers,

sending as many as twenty-five and thirty to one contract. On some of these the men made fairly good wages, and finished up their season very well satisfied; others again, though having equally good chances, did not do so well; consequently there was a little grumbling. This can be attributed to various causes, notably want of experience, and want of cohesion among the men themselves. Road contractors also availed themselves of the services of men forwarded by the department, and in most cases have expressed themselves satisfied with the selection made. Station-holders, farmers, and flax-millers have also been supplied with men and boys, the majority of whom have given satisfaction. In addition to those placed in actual employment, and forwarded by the department, many have availed themselves of the information possessed by the department as to the best districts to proceed to on their own account to look for work, notably Australians. We have had as many as twenty men in one day, possessing a few pounds of their own, and desiring no other assistance but to be informed as to the best place to which to steer. Not the least valuable part of our work has been to assist the wives and families of men who had procured work in the colony to get to their husbands, thus relieving the Benevolent and Charitable Aid Boards, and at the same time helping to give these people the chance of becoming good and prosperous settlers. We have also had many visitors from Great Britain, they having been advised by the Agent-General in London to call upon us. We have been enabled to give them such information about labour and other matters connected with the colony that, instead of wasting time hanging about the city, they have gone at once into the country, and should in a very short time give a good account of themselves. By our system of monthly reports from agents, who are to be found in every township and city of the colony, we are constantly in receipt of information as to the requirements of labour in any particular part of the country, and by this means have saved men needless journeys to and fro looking for employment.

These Co-operative works, both road and rail, have provided work for a large number of men, principally married, who in many instances have removed their wives and families to the scene of operations and intend to settle there permanently. . . . The men who are sent by the bureau to any co-operative work sign orders for the amount advanced for rail or steamer fare. This is deducted from their earnings by instalments, which takes away the feeling of charity an absolutely free pass might give. (I may state that this is also done in the case of men going to private employment, and in the majority of cases the arrangement is loyally carried out.)"

The Agent at Greymouth reports that—

"many of the older hands of the digging community are becoming incapacitated from age, but they seldom leave their districts to seek lighter employment about the towns, and when permanently superannuated are usually generously provided for by friends. The bulk of the unemployed dealt with by me are miners who have adapted themselves as "handy-men," labourers suffering from the cessation of large contracts, and artisans who have speculated a visit to the coast for an opening in their particular calling Regarding the work of this branch for the year, twenty-nine men were employed in making bridges on the Greymouth and Hokitika Railway, fifty on the formation of same work, and fifty-one on ballasting and plate-laying. . . . The average earnings per man per working-day would be in excess a little of 10s., and, as the men were camped out within easy distance of the town, the cheap living enhanced the financial results for the single men.

"I have gone carefully through my lists, and made extensive inquiries to get at a true estimate of the number of *bond fide* unemployed. On soliciting names for the ballasting contracts, 359 names were received, which, it is needless to say, was a surprising number. Inquiries, however, prove that exaggerated accounts of the profits of co-operative labour had got abroad, and that a number of men having small claims, or work on hand of a non-pressing character, had left their fixed employments to temporarily get a share in the supposed extravagant wages under the co-operative system. Although the work in dealing with such a number of applications was considerable, I speedily discovered what was the matter, and struck out the names of those who were procrastinating work already in hand.

"As to the average number of unemployed, it is very small, and the continuous flow of contracts and casual labour gives all a chance. I estimate the number of those who have been at times really needy at from thirty to forty (married men being the majority), but I do not think there are any who throughout the year earn insufficient to provide the necessaries of life."

It is reported from Blenheim that—

"private employers have rarely patronised this office during the past year—only when they wanted work done at a ridiculously low price, and failed elsewhere, would they honour us with a call, and that has only occurred three times. Perhaps one of the reasons for the farmers not applying here for labour may be that the department is not sufficiently advertised. The private labour agents advertise extensively, and they are certainly patronised by the farmers, &c., often to the detriment of the men who frequently have to pay a high fee for a very poor job. . . . There are now 258 men registered since the 2nd March unprovided for—viz., 224 married men, with 479 persons dependent upon them, and thirty-four single men (twenty-five are recent arrivals from Australia, and four from Europe—i.e., within the last six months). I have passed through the office 547 men—283 sent to Government works, and 264 sent to private works, or assisted to go in search of work."

Besides the New Zealand Government, most of the Australian Colonies have taken steps to deal with the unemployed. For example, in Victoria, a bureau was established by the Government in June 1892 at Melbourne, and agencies were opened at about 50 post-offices in the colony under the management of local postmasters. These branch agencies were not very successful, and eventually the Government decided that the bureau was an incumbrance rather than an aid in dealing with the labour difficulty, and on the 22nd May 1893 it was abolished.

The Government of New South Wales opened a bureau in February 1892, and according to the first annual report, issued in March 1893, 15,779 persons had been registered during the year, and employment had been found for 8,154. An increased number of unemployed were coming from other colonies, and from 400 to 600 men were in daily attendance at the bureau looking for work.

At Brisbane, in Queensland, a Government Labour Bureau was established in 1886 and branches formed. According to a report for 1892, dated May 1893, the total number registered at Brisbane and the branch offices amounted to 7,033, of whom 4,230 were placed in situations.

PART V.—HISTORICAL EXAMPLES.

(i.) PARISH EMPLOYMENT UNDER THE OLD POOR LAW.

(a.) INTRODUCTORY.

It has been pointed out in an earlier part of the report * that under the system of administration of poor relief which has prevailed in England since the passing of the Act of 1834, Boards of Guardians do not provide able-bodied destitute persons with employment for wages, but relieve them in such manner and to such an extent as appears necessary, the family being taken as the unit, while any work to which they may be set is regarded as a test of destitution, and not as employment.

This was very far from being the principle which was recognised under the old poor law, and the effects of the opposite system of relief (*viz.*, by parish employment) are dealt with at length in the report of the Poor Law Commissioners of 1834. The section of the general report which bears on this subject has been thought of sufficient interest to be reprinted below.

The Act of the 43rd of Elizabeth † (1601) therein referred to provided that the churchwardens, with two or three substantial householders in each parish or group of parishes should meet and among other things “take order from time to time for
 “ setting to work all such persons married or unmarried, having
 “ no means to maintain them, and use no ordinary and daily
 “ trade of life to get their living by; and also to raise
 “ by taxation of every inhabitant a convenient stock
 “ of flax, hemp, wool, thread, iron, and other ware or stuff to set
 “ the poor on work.” Previous Acts had contained somewhat similar provisions, and subsequent statutes defined the duty more precisely. Yet the clause was by no means widely put into operation, being in fact very generally neglected.

During the 17th and 18th centuries a very great number of schemes and reports on the subject of the employment of the poor as a means of relief were published, the authors including such well-known names as Sir Matthew Hale and Sir William Petty. In 1697 after the Board of Trade had been reconstituted by William III., one of the very earliest subjects which engaged its attention was the preparation of a scheme for “the setting of the poor of this kingdom at work.” The Minute Book of the Board of Trade for this year contains repeated entries, showing the amount of time devoted to this subject by the

* See pp. 144-5.

† 43 Eliz. c. 2.

Lords Commissioners, each of whom undertook to draft a plan for the purpose of discussion. Among the schemes thus drafted was one by John Locke, the philosopher, who was one of the Commissioners. His representation on "The Employment of the Poor" is printed in Mr. Fox Bourne's *Life of John Locke*, vol. II. pp. 377-391, and is reprinted as an addendum to this chapter* for its antiquarian interest alone, apart from any bearing it may have on existing problems.

During the latter part of the 17th century, and the early part of the 18th, several experiments were made in certain districts in the direction of establishing "Houses of Industry" for the employment of the poor, of which one of the first and most famous was the Bristol experiment conducted by Carey. At first these houses of industry were established one by one under special local Acts, but in 1723 an Act was passed allowing a number of parishes to be incorporated for the purpose of carrying them on.

These houses, to which whole families were admitted, appear to have been conducted at a loss to the parishes concerned, but the amount of loss varied very greatly according to the management.

During the last quarter of the 18th century a number of parish farms for the employment of paupers were established and carried on with varying success. The report of 1834, as will be seen below, condemns the parish farms generally as having failed and become sources of malversation. The farm at Cranbrook seems to have been one of the best managed and to have lasted the longest. It is described in an appendix to the report from the Select Committee on the Poor Laws in 1817.

Another plan which prevailed in some districts was for parishes to build "poor houses" in which paupers were lodged, and sent out to work for outside employers during the day. Paupers were also employed by parishes in road making, stone breaking, &c.

The results of the system of relieving the able-bodied paupers by "setting them on work" are described below.

(b.) EXTRACT FROM REPORT OF THE POOR LAW COMMISSIONERS, 1834, PP. 21-24.

The 43rd of Elizabeth does not authorise relief to be afforded to any but the impotent, except in return for work. And much as this part of the statute has been neglected, its validity is recognised by the judges. In the *King v. Collett*, 2 Barnewell and Cresswell, 324, Lord Tenterden decided it to be the duty of overseers to provide work, if possible, before they afforded relief. And whatever may be the difficulty of finding *profitable* work, it is difficult to suppose the existence of a parish in which it would not be *possible* to provide some work, were it merely to dig

* p. 363.

holes and fill them again. But though such is the law, it appears from the Parliamentary Returns that payment for work is the most unusual form in which relief is administered. The Poor Rate Returns for the year ending the 25th March 1832, state that out of 7,036,968*l.* expended in that year for the relief of the poor, less than 354,000*l.*, or scarcely more than one-twentieth part, was paid for work, including work on the roads and in the workhouses. This may easily be accounted for.

In the first place, to afford relief gratuitously is less troublesome to the parochial authorities than to require work in return for it. Wherever work is to be paid for there must be superintendence, but where paupers are the workpeople much more than the average degree of superintendence is necessary. In ordinary cases, all that the superintendent inquires is, whether the workman has performed an average day's work; and where the work is piece-work he need not make even that inquiry. The practice of his trade fixes the market price of the work, and he pays it without asking whether the workman has been one hour or one day in performing it, or whether it exceeds or falls below his wants. But the superintendent of pauper labourers has to ascertain, not what is an average day's work, or what is the market price of a given service, but what is a fair day's work for a given individual, his strength and habits considered, at what rate of pay for that work, the number of his family considered, he would be able to earn the sum necessary for his and their subsistence; and lastly, whether he has in fact performed the amount which, after taking all these elements in calculation, it appears that he ought to have performed. It will easily be anticipated that this superintendence is very rarely given; and that in far the greater number of the cases in which work is professedly required from paupers, in fact no work is done. In the second place, collecting the paupers in gangs for the performance of parish work is found to be more immediately injurious to their conduct than even allowance or relief without requiring work. Whatever be the general character of the parish labourers all the worst of the inhabitants are sure to be among the number; and it is well-known that the effect of such an association is always to degrade the good, not to elevate the bad. It was among these gangs, who had scarcely any other employment or amusement than to collect in groups and talk over their grievances, that the riots of 1830 appear to have originated. And, thirdly, parish employment does not afford direct profit to any individual. Under most of the other systems of relief the immediate employers of labour can throw on the parish a part of the wages of their labourers. They prefer, therefore, those modes of relief which they can turn to their own account, out of which they can extract profit under the mask of charity.

In those parishes in which labour is the condition on which relief is granted we have found great differences with respect to

the kind and the duration of the labour required, and the amount of its remuneration. In Cookham, in Putney, and in many of the metropolitan parishes the work is irksome, the hours of labour are equal to those which a private employer would exact, and the pay less than he would give. In others, the amount of labour required is far less than that which an independent labourer must afford, but the pay is diminished so far as is consistent with the supposed wants of the applicant. Thus, at Kimpton, Hants:—

“The single young men are employed by piece work, but are restricted to earn only 2s. 6d. a week, and are then at liberty to go where they like. In the same place children are employed in picking stones by task, and are allowed to earn the price of a gallon of bread and 6d. over per week, which they can do in about four days.”

At Gamlingay, Cambridge:—

“The paupers are employed in collecting stones at the price of 2d. a bushel, until they have earned the sum allotted to them by the bread scale; they then do as they please for that week.”

At Uckfield, Sussex, instead of a part of each week:—

“They are required to work a part of each day, so as to earn the sum which is considered necessary for their subsistence; a sum which, according to the magisterial scale of the Uckfield bench appears to be, for a single man, 4s.; man and wife, 7s.; man, wife, and one child, 8s. 6d.; with two children, 10s.; and for each child above two, the value of a gallon of flour. In a parish in Suffolk 20 acres were hired by the parish and dug by the paupers at piece work, the price being proportioned to their families. Either the work was completed by two or three o'clock, and the rest of the day spent in idleness, or the men consumed the whole day in the lazy performance of the work of a portion of the day.”

In Pollington, Yorkshire:—

“They send many of them upon the highways, but they only work four hours per day; this is because there is not employment sufficient in that way; they sleep more than they work, and if any but the surveyor found them sleeping, they would laugh at them. In Rancilffe they employed a man in the winter of 1830–31 to look over them; but they threatened to drown him, and he was obliged to withdraw. If a man did not like his work, he would say, ‘I can have 12s. a week by going on the roads and doing as little as I like.’ In Carlton from 30d. to 40d. was paid to men last year (1831) for doing nothing.”

In the parish of Mancetter, in the county of Warwick, the overseer stated that young able men received 2s. 6d. a week, and the magistrates would not allow the parish to employ them more than three days in the week, in order that they might get work for themselves. Upon inquiry it appeared that their characters soon became so infamous, that no person would employ them, having devoted their spare time to thieving and poaching. In the township of Atherstone, Mr. Wellday, a manufacturer, impatient of contributing his property to the encouragement

of vice and idleness by paying men without exacting labour, purchased some watercarts himself, for the purpose of giving employment to paupers. The magistrates refused to allow them to be used after 12 o'clock in the day, in order that these men might procure work for themselves; they were also described as becoming the most worthless characters in the town.

In some of the agricultural districts, the prevalent mismanagement in this respect has created in the minds of the paupers a notion that it is their right to be exempted from the same degree of labour as independent labourers. In the parish of Swallowfield (Berks) the paupers summoned the overseers before the magistrates. They had been——

“Offered task-work at the gravel-pit at 8*d.* a yard, or 1*s.* a load for digging and sifting without loading. This had been considered a fair price with loading. The complainants contended before the magistrates, that by what they considered ‘a right,’ they ought not to be employed on the part of the parish more than from eight in the morning until four in the afternoon, although when working for farmers, they were usually kept at work from six in the morning until six at night in summer, or from daylight until dark in the winter. This, which they claimed as ‘their right,’ had, in fact, been the previous practice in the parish, and was and is in a greater or less degree the existing practice in adjacent parishes.”

In the course of the examination of Mr. Price from Great Farringdon (Berks), he was asked——

“How did you enforce work on the in-door paupers?—Chiefly by admonition. Their labour was, as might be expected, very slack comparatively. I, however, insisted that they should work during the same time as independent labourers. This they resisted, and appealed to the magistrates against this usage. The ground of their appeal was, that it was a thing unknown before in this parish, or any other, that parish labourers should work as long or as hard as the other classes of labourers.”

But in many places, while the labour required by the parish is trifling, the pay equals or exceeds that of the independent labourer. Eastbourne, in Sussex, is a striking example. In this place, in which the average wages earned from individuals by hard work are 12*s.* a week, the parish pays for nominal labour as much as 16*s.* a week. Two families alone received from it, in year ending Lady-day 1832, 92*l.* 4*s.*, and the wives of the few independent labourers regret that their husbands are not paupers. At the parish farm, occupied by the incorporated parishes of the Isle of Wight, 240 men were employed at one time in the year 1830, at the same wages as those usually given by the farmers; they scarcely did any work, and twice left the farm in a body to threaten the directors. Their wages were consequently raised.

In the parish of Hartland, says Mr. Villiers:—

“Mr. ———, ———, who had occupied land there for 17 years informed me that the magistrates were in the habit of ordering the same wages for the men working on the roads, not superintended, as were paid

to the labourers in the employ of the farmers, and that on this account as well as that the poor liked to watch for the wrecks in the winter, they did not seek for work out of the parish."

Mr. Richardson states that in Northamptonshire :—

"The plan generally in use in the agricultural villages is, upon the man's applying to the overseer for work, to send him upon some part of the parish roads, where he is expected to work, not the farmer's hours or anything like them, but to begin at eight, to leave at twelve for dinner, an hour, and to leave the roads finally at four. It is the business of the overseer or the surveyor of the roads, a farmer or a tradesman, who paid or not, has his own business to attend to, to see that the men are actually working. While he is present, and the farmers take credit to themselves for riding up once or twice a day to the roads, the men bestir themselves a little, but the moment his back is turned, a man who gives himself any trouble is laughed at by his companions. As the overseer at Kettering told me their remark is, 'You must have your 12s. a week, or your 10s. a week, whether you work or not, I would not be such a fool as to work—blast work—damn me if I work,' &c., and of course, under these circumstances, they do anything but work; if there is a wood near, as at Glapthorne and some other places round Oundle, they run into the wood to steal firing, which they hide and carry off at a convenient time, and universally they are in the habit of stealing turnips or posts, or any little thing of that sort that comes to hand.

"In short where there were many able-bodied men employed on the roads, there every body complained of petty thefts, pilfering, poaching, &c., as the natural consequences.

"Whatever the previous character of a man may have been, he is seldom able to withstand the corruption of the roads; two years' occasional employment there ruins the best labourer. Moreover, in very many instances, the difference between parish pay for pretending to break stones on the road, and the real wages given by the farmer, does not amount to more than 1s. a week, and if the man has a family entitling him to receive a given sum by the scale as head money, he receives as much from the parish as he would from any other employer. Accordingly the labourers who are only occasionally employed, are nearly indifferent to pleasing or displeasing their employer, they quit with the remark which I heard at least a dozen times from different overseers, 'I can get as much on the roads, as if I worked for you.'"

The following extracts from Mr. Okeden's and Mr. Majendie's Reports afford examples of all these systems sometimes separate and sometimes in combination :—

"At Urchfont, a parish in the district of Devizes, the population of which is 1,340, and the annual poor rates about 1,450*l.* there are above 50 men out of employ for 43 weeks every year. To these the parish pays 3*s.* a week each during that time and inquires no further about their time or labour; thus creating an annual item of expense of nearly 400*l.*"

"At the parish of Bodicott, in the district of Bloxham, a printed form is delivered to those who apply for work. The labourer takes this to the farmers in succession, who if they do not want his labour, sign their names. The man on his return receives from the overseer the day's pay of an industrious labourer, with the deduction of 2*d.* The same system takes place in other parishes.

"In the parish of Sidford Gore, in the same district, where the poor rates are under 650*l.* per annum, 114*l.* was paid last year in six months to men who did not strike one stroke of work for it.

"At Deddington, during the severe winter months, about 60 men apply every morning to the overseer for work or pay. He ranges them under a shed in a yard. If a farmer or any one else wants a man he sends to the yard for one, and pays half the day's wages; the rest is paid by the parish. At the close of the day the unemployed are paid the wages of a day, minus 2*d.* I could multiply instances of this application of the scale to the superfluous labourers, but to do so would only waste your time."

"At Rotherfield, in East Sussex, 120 men were out of employ in the winter 1831-32, and various modes were attempted to dispose of them. First they were set to work on the parish account; single men at 5*s.*; men with families at 10*s.* per week; the pay being the same as farmers pay, the men left the farmers in order to get the same pay with less work. Then they were billeted among the farmers at 1*s.* per day from the farmers, and 8*d.* from the parish. This was changed to 1*s.* from the parish and 8*d.* from the farmer. The men so billeted did not keep the proper hours of work; then the farmers' men, finding that they who worked the regular hours were paid no more than those who were irregular, gave up their employment to become billeted men, and the farmers were induced to throw their men out of employ to get their labour done by the parish purse. The billeting system having failed, a 6*d.* labour rate was made, it soon failed. Magistrates now recommend 6*d.* in the £ to be deducted from the full rate, and that the occupier should be allowed to pay that proportion of his rate by employment of the surplus hands.

"The labourers are much deteriorated. They do not care whether they have regular work or not; they prefer idle work on the roads. The magistrates at the Uckfield bench told the overseer, the year before last, that if the men made complaint they should be allowed at the rate of 2*s.* 4*d.* per head for each member of the family."

"At Burnash, in East Sussex, in the year 1822, the surplus labourers were put up to auction, and hired as low as 2*d.* and 3*d.* per day; the rest of their maintenance being made up by the parish. The consequence was, that the farmers turned off their regular hands, in order to hire them by auction when they wanted them. The evil of this system was so apparent, that some occupiers applied to the magistrates, who recommended that it should be given up. During the last year, the following plan has been adopted:—The names of the occupiers are written on pieces of paper, which are put into a bag; the labourer draws out a ticket, which represents 10*s.* worth of labour, at fair wages; next week the labourer draws another master, and this is repeated till the occupier has exhausted the shilling rate. This has continued two winters; much fraud is mixed up with the practice. Some farmers turn off their labourers in order to have ticketed men; other occupiers refuse to pay the rate, and against them it is not enforced."

ADDENDUM.

LOCKE'S REPRESENTATION as to the EMPLOYMENT of the POOR.*

"MAY IT PLEASE YOUR EXCELLENCIES,—His Majesty having been pleased by his commission to require us particularly to consider of some proper methods for setting on work and employing the poor of this Kingdom, and making them useful to the public, and thereby easing others of that burden, and by what ways and means such design may be made most effectual; we humbly beg leave to lay before your excellencies a scheme of such methods as seem unto us most proper for the attainment of those ends.

"The multiplying of the poor and the increase of the tax for their maintenance, is so general an observation and complaint that it cannot be doubted of. Nor has it been only since the last war that this evil has come upon us. It has been a growing burden on the Kingdom these many years, and the two last reigns felt the increase of it as well as the present.

"If the causes of this evil be well looked into we humbly conceive it will be found to have proceeded neither from scarcity of provisions nor from want of employment for the poor, since the goodness of God has blessed these times with plenty no less than the former, and a long peace during those reigns gave us as plentiful a trade as ever. The growth of the poor must, therefore, have some other cause, and it can be nothing else but the relaxation of discipline and corruption of manners; virtue and industry being as constant companions on the one side as vice and idleness are on the other.

"The first step, therefore, towards the setting of the poor on work, we humbly conceive, ought to be a restraint of their debauchery by a strict execution of the laws provided against it, more particularly by the suppression of superfluous brandy shops and unnecessary alehouses, especially in country parishes not lying upon great roads.

"Could all the able hands in England be brought to work, the greatest part of the burden that lies upon the industrious for maintaining the poor would immediately cease. For, upon a very moderate computation, it may be concluded that above one-half of those who receive relief from the parishes are able to get their livelihood. And all of them who receive such relief from the parishes, we conceive, may be divided into these three sorts.

"First, those who can do nothing at all towards their own support.

"Secondly, those who, though they cannot maintain themselves wholly, yet are able to do something towards it.

"Thirdly, those who are able to maintain themselves by their own labour. And these last may be again subdivided into two sorts, namely, either those who have numerous families of children whom they cannot or pretend they cannot support by their labour, or those who pretend they cannot get work and so live only by begging or worse.

* *Board of Trade Papers*, Journal B, pp. 170, 242-5, 250, 255, 263-9, 275, 278, 285, 316, 326, 348-55; also *Life of John Locke*, H. R. Fox Bourne. Vol II., pp. 377-91.

"For the suppression of this last sort of begging drones, who live unnecessarily upon other people's labour, there are already good and wholesome laws, sufficient for the purpose if duly executed. We therefore humbly propose that the execution thereof may be at present revived by proclamation till other remedies can be provided; as also that order be taken every year, at the choosing of churchwardens and overseers of the poor, that the statutes of the 39th Eliz., cap. 4. and the 43rd Eliz., cap. 2,* be read and considered, paragraph by paragraph, and the observation of them in all their parts pressed on those who are to be overseers; for we have reason to think that the greatest part of the overseers of the poor everywhere are wholly ignorant, and never so much as think that it is the greatest part, or so much as any part, of their duty to set people to work.

"But for the more effectual restraining of idle vagabonds, we further humbly propose that a new law may be obtained, by which it be enacted,

"That all men, sound of limb and mind, above 14 and under 50 years of age, begging in maritime counties out of their own parish without a pass, shall be seized on either by any officer of the parish where they so beg (which officers by virtue of their offices shall be authorised, and under a penalty required to do it), or by the inhabitants of the house themselves where they beg, and be by them or any of them brought before the next justice of the peace or guardian of the poor (to be chosen as hereafter mentioned) who in this case shall have the power of a justice of the peace, and, by such justice of the peace or guardian of the poor (after the due and usual correction in the case), be by a pass sent, not to the house of correction, (since those houses are now in most counties complained of to be rather places of ease and preferment to the masters thereof than of correction and reformation to those who are sent thither,) nor to their places of habitation, (since such idle vagabonds usually name some remote part, whereby the county is put to great charge, and they usually make their escape from the negligent officers before they come thither, and are at liberty for a new ramble), but, if it be in a maritime county as aforesaid, that they be sent to the next seaport town, there to be kept at hard labour, till some of his Majesty's ships, coming in or near there, give an opportunity of putting them on board, where they shall serve three years, under strict discipline at soldier's pay (subsistence money being deducted for their victuals on board), and be punished as deserters if they go on shore without leave, or, when sent on shore, if they either go further or stay longer than they have leave.

"That all men begging in maritime counties without passes, that are maimed or above 50 years of age, and all of any age so begging without passes in inland counties nowhere bordering on the sea, shall be sent to the next house of correction, there to be kept at hard labour for three years.

"And to the end that the true use of the houses of correction may not be perverted as of late it has for the most part been, that the master of each such house shall be obliged to allow unto everyone committed to

* The former of these Acts provided for the erection of houses of correction and the due punishment of vagabonds therein. The latter is the famous statute on which our Poor Laws are based, directing that there shall be overseers of the poor in every parish, empowered, conjointly with the justices of the peace, to levy poor rates, set the able-bodied poor to work provide for impotent paupers, apprentice out pauper-children, and so forth.

his charge fourpence per diem for their maintenance in and about London; but, in remoter counties, where wages and provisions are much cheaper, there the rate to be settled by the grand jury and judge at the assizes; for which the said master shall have no other consideration nor allowance but what their labour shall produce; whom, therefore, he shall have power to employ according to his discretion, consideration being had of their age and strength.

"That the justices of the peace shall, each quarter-sessions, make a narrow inquiry into the state and management of the houses of correction within their district, and take a strict account of the carriage of all who are there, and, if they find that anyone is stubborn and not at all mended by the discipline of the place, that they order him a longer stay there and severer discipline, that so nobody may be dismissed till he has given manifest proof of amendment, the end for which he was sent thither.

"That whoever shall counterfeit a pass shall lose his ears for the forgery the first time that he is found guilty thereof, and the second time that he shall be transported to the plantations, as in case of felony.

"That whatever female above 14 years old shall be found begging out of her own parish without a pass (if she be an inhabitant of a parish within five miles' distance of that she is found begging in), shall be conducted home to her parish by the constable, tithing-man, overseer of the poor, churchwarden, or other sworn officer of the parish wherein she was found begging, who, by his place and office, shall be required to do it and to deliver her to the overseer of the poor of the parish to which she belongs, from whom he shall receive twelpence for his pains, which twelpence, if she be one that receives public relief, shall be deducted out of her parish allowance, or, if she be not relieved by the parish, shall be levied on her or her parents' or her master's goods.

"That, whenever any such female above 14 years old, within the same distance, commits the same fault a second time, and whenever the same or any such other female is found begging without a lawful pass, the first time, at a greater distance than five miles from the place of her abode, it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace or guardian of the poor, upon complaint made, to send her to the house of correction, there to be employed in hard work three months, and so much longer as shall be to the next quarter-sessions after the determination of the said three months, and that then, after due correction, she have a pass made her by the sessions to carry her home to the place of her abode.

"That, if any boy or girl, under 14 years of age, shall be found begging out of the parish where they dwell (it within five miles' distance of the said parish), they shall be sent to the next working school, there to be soundly whipped and kept at work till evening, so that they may be dismissed time enough to get to their place of abode that night. Or, if they live further than five miles off from the place where they are taken begging, that they be sent to the next house of correction, there to remain at work six weeks and so much longer as till the next sessions after the end of the said six weeks.

"These idle vagabonds being thus suppressed, there will not, we suppose, in most country parishes, be many men who will have the pretence that they want work. However in order to the taking away of that pretence, whenever it happens, we humbly propose that it may be further enacted,

"That the guardian of the poor of the parish where any such pretence is made, shall, the next Sunday after complaint made to him, acquaint

the parish that such a person complains he wants work, and shall then ask whether any one is willing to employ him at a lower rate than is usually given, which rate it shall then be in the power of the said guardian to set; for it is not to be supposed that any one should be refused to be employed by his neighbours whilst others are set to work, but for some defect in his ability or honesty, for which it is reasonable he should suffer, and he that cannot be set on work for twelvepence per diem must be content with ninepence or tenpence rather than live idly. But, if nobody in the parish voluntarily accept such a person at the rate proposed by the guardians of the poor, that then it shall be in the power of the said guardian, with the rest of the parish, to make a list of days, according to the proportion of every one's tax in the parish, to the poor and that, according to such list, every inhabitant in the same parish shall be obliged in their turn, to set such unemployed poor men of the same parish on work, at such under-rates as the guardians of the poor shall appoint; and if any person refuse to set the poor at work in his turn as thus directed, that such person shall be bound to pay them their appointed wages, whether he employ them or no.

"That if any poor man, otherwise unemployed, refuse to work according to such order (if it be in a maritime county) he shall be sent to the next port, and there put on board some of His Majesty's ships, to serve there three years as before proposed, and that what pay shall accrue to him for his service there, above his diet and clothes, be paid to the overseers of the poor of the parish to which he belongs, for the maintenance of his wife and children, if he have any, or else towards the relief of other poor of the same parish; but, if it be not in a maritime county, that every poor man thus refusing to work shall be sent to the house of correction.

"These methods we humbly propose as proper to be enacted, in order to the employment of the poor who are able but will not work; which sort, by the punctual execution of such a law, we humbly conceive, may be quickly reduced to a very small number or quite extirpated.

"But the greatest part of the poor maintained by parish rates, are not absolutely unable, nor wholly unwilling to do anything towards the getting of their livelihoods, yet even these, either through want of fit work provided for them, or their unskilfulness in working in what might be a public advantage, do little that turns to any account, but live idly upon the parish allowance or begging, if not worse. Their labour, therefore, as far as they are able to work, should be saved to the public, and what their earnings come short of a full maintenance should be supplied out of the labour of others, that is, out of the parish allowance.

"These are of two sorts:—

"1. Grown people, who, being decayed from their full strength, could yet do something for their living, though, under pretence that they cannot get work, they generally do nothing. In the same case with these are most of the wives of day labourers, when they come to have two or three or more children. The looking after their children gives them not liberty to go abroad to seek for work, and so, having no work at home, in the broken intervals of their time they earn nothing; but the aid of the parish is fain to come in to their support, and their labour is wholly lost; which is so much loss to the public.

"Every one must have meat, drink, clothing, and firing. So much goes out of the stock of the kingdom, whether they work or no. Supposing then, there be a hundred thousand poor in England, that live upon the parish, that is, who are maintained by other people's labour

(for so is every one who lives upon alms without working), if care were taken that every one of these, by some labour in the woollen or other manufacture, should earn but a penny per diem (which, one with another, they might well do and more), this would gain to England 130,000*l.* per annum, which, in eight years, would make England above a million pounds richer.

"This, rightly considered, shows us what is the true and proper relief of the poor. It consists in finding work for them, and taking care they do not live like drones upon the labour of others. And in order to this end we find the laws made for the relief of the poor were intended; however, by an ignorance of their intention or a neglect of their due execution, they are turned only to the maintenance of people in idleness, without at all examining into the lives, abilities, or industry of those who seek for relief.

"In order to the suppression of these idle beggars, the corporations in England have beedles authorised and paid to prevent the breach of the law in that particular; yet, nevertheless, the streets everywhere swarm with beggars, to the increase of idleness, poverty, and villany, and to the shame of Christianity. And, if it should be asked in any town in England, how many of these visible trespassers have been taken up and brought to punishment by those officers this last year, we have reason to think the number would be found to have been very small, because that of beggars swarming in the street is manifestly very great.

"But the remedy of this disorder is so well provided by the laws now in force, that we can impute the continuance and increase of it to nothing but a general neglect of their execution.

"2. Besides the grown people above mentioned, the children of labouring people are an ordinary burden to the parish, and are usually maintained in idleness, so that their labour also is generally lost to the public till they are twelve or fourteen years old.

"The most effectual remedy for this that we are able to conceive, and which we therefore humbly propose is, that, in the fore-mentioned new law to be enacted, it be further provided that working schools be set up in every parish, to which the children of all such as demand relief of the parish above three and under fourteen years of age, whilst they live at home with their parents, and are not otherwise employed for their livelihood by the allowance of the overseers of the poor, shall be obliged to come.

"By this means the mother will be eased of a great part of her trouble in looking after and providing for them at home, and so be at the more liberty to work; the children will be kept in much better order, be better provided for, and from infancy be inured to work, which is of no small consequence to the making of them sober and industrious all their lives after; and the parish will be either eased of this burden or at least of the misuse in the present management of it. For a great number of children giving a poor man a title to an allowance from the parish, this allowance is given once a week or once a month to the father in money, which he not seldom spends on himself at the alehouse whilst his children for whose sake he had it are left to suffer, or perish under the want of necessaries, unless the charity of neighbours relieve them.

"We humbly conceive that a man and his wife in health may be able by their ordinary labour to maintain themselves and two children. More than two children at one time under the age of three years will seldom happen in one family. If therefore all the children above three years old be taken off from their hands those who have never so many,

whilst they remain themselves in health, will not need any allowance for them.

"We do not suppose that children of three years old will be able at that age to get their livelihoods at the working school, but we are sure that what is necessary for their relief will more effectually have that use if it be distributed to them in bread at that school than if it be given to their fathers in money. What they have at home from their parents is seldom more than bread and water, and that, many of them, very scantily too. If therefore care be taken that they have each of them their belly-full of bread daily at school, they will be in no danger of famishing, but, on the contrary, they will be healthier and stronger than those who are bred otherwise, nor will this practice cost the overseers any trouble, for a baker may be agreed with to furnish and bring into the school-house every day the allowance of bread necessary for all the scholars that are there. And to this may be also added, without any trouble, in cold weather, if it be thought needful, a little warm water gruel; for the same fire that warms the room may be made use of to boil a pot of it.

"From this method the children will not only reap the fore-mentioned advantages with far less charge to the parish than what is now done for them, but they will be also thereby the more obliged to come to school and apply themselves to work, because otherwise they will have no victuals, and also the benefit thereby both to themselves and the parish will daily increase; for, the earnings of their labour at school every day increasing, it may reasonably be concluded that, computing all the earnings of a child from three to 14 years of age, the nourishment and teaching of such a child during that whole time will cost the parish nothing; whereas there is no child now which from its birth is maintained by the parish but before the age of fourteen, costs the parish 50*l.* or 60*l.*

"Another advantage also of bringing children thus to a working school is that by this means they may be obliged to come constantly to church every Sunday, along with their schoolmasters or dames, whereby they may be brought into some sense of religion, whereas ordinarily now, in their idle and loose way of breeding up, they are as utter strangers both to religion and morality as they are to industry.

"In order, therefore, to the more effectual carrying on of this work to the advantage of this kingdom, we further humbly propose that these schools be generally for spinning or knitting, or some other part of the woollen manufacture, unless in countries * where the place shall furnish some other materials fitter for the employment of such poor children, in which places the choice of those materials for their employment may be left to the prudence and direction of the guardians of the poor of that hundred. And that the teachers in these schools be paid out of the poor's rate, as can be agreed.

"This, though at first setting up it may cost the parish a little, yet we humbly conceive, (the earnings of the children abating the charge of their maintenance, and as much work being required of each of them as they are reasonably able to perform,) it will quickly pay its own charges with an overplus.

"That where the number of the poor children of any parish is greater than for them all to be employed in one school they be there divided into two, and the boys and girls, if thought convenient, taught and kept to work separately.

* That is, districts.

"That the handicraftsmen in each hundred be bound to take every other of their respective apprentices from amongst the boys in some one of the schools in the said hundred without any money; which boys they may so take at what age they please, to be bound to them till the age of 23 years, that so the length of time may more than make amends for the usual sums that are given to handicraftsmen with such apprentices.

"That those also in the hundred who keep in their hands lands of their own to the value of 25*l.* per annum, or upwards, or who rent 50*l.* per annum or upwards, may choose out of the schools of the said hundred what boy each of them pleases, to be his apprentice in husbandry on the same condition.

"That whatever boys are not by these means bound out apprentices before they are full fourteen shall, at the Easter meeting of the guardians of each hundred every year, be bound to such gentlemen, yeomen, or farmers within the said hundred as have the greatest number of acres of land in their hands, who shall be obliged to take them for their apprentices till the age of 23, or bind them out at their own cost to some handicraftsmen; provided always that no such gentleman, yeoman, or farmer shall be bound to have two such apprentices at a time.

"That grown people also (to take away their pretence of want of work) may come to the said working schools to learn, where work shall accordingly be provided for them.

"That the materials to be employed in these schools and among other the poor people of the parish be provided by a common stock in each hundred, to be raised out of a certain portion of the poor's rate of each parish as requisite, which stock, we humbly conceive, need be raised but once; for, if rightly managed, it will increase.

"That some person experienced and well skilled in the particular manufacture which shall be judged fittest to set the poor of each hundred on work, be appointed storekeeper for that hundred, who shall, accordingly, buy in the wool or other materials necessary; that this storekeeper be chosen by the guardians of the poor of each hundred, and be under their direction, and have such salary as they shall appoint to be paid *pro rata* upon the pound out of the poor's tax of every parish, and, over and above which salary, that he also have 2*s.* in the pound yearly for every 20*s.* that shall be lessened in the poor's tax of any parish from the first year of his management.

"That to this storekeeper one of the overseers of the poor of every parish shall repair as often as there shall be occasion, to fetch from him the materials for the employment of the poor of each parish; which materials the said overseer shall distribute to the teachers of the children of each school and also to other poor who demand relief of the said parish to be wrought by them at home in such quantity as he or the guardian of the parish shall judge reasonable for each of them respectively to despatch in one week, allowing unto each such poor person for his or her work what he and the storekeeper shall agree it to be worth; but, if the said overseer and storekeeper do not agree about the price of any such work, that then any three or more of the guardians of that hundred (whereof the guardian of the same parish in which the contest arises to be always one) determine it.

"That the sale of the materials thus manufactured be made by the storekeeper in the presence of one or more of the guardians of each hundred and not otherwise, and that an exact account be kept by the said storekeeper of all that he buys in and sells out, as also of the several quantities of unwrought materials that he delivers to the

respective overseers and of the manufactured returns that he received back again from them.

"That, if any person to whom wool or any other materials are delivered to be wrought shall spoil or embezzle the same, if it be one who receives alms from the parish, the overseers of the poor of that parish shall pay unto the storekeeper what it cost, and deduct that sum out of the parish allowance to the person who has so spoiled or embezzled any such materials, or, if it be one that receives no allowance from the parish, then the said overseers shall demand it in money of the person that spoiled or embezzled it, and if the person so offending refuse to pay it, the guardian of the poor of that parish, upon oath made to him by any of the said overseers that he delivered such materials to such person, and that he paid for them such a sum to the storekeeper (which oath every such guardian may be empowered to administer), shall grant unto the said overseer a warrant to distrain upon the goods of the person so offending, and sell the goods so distrained, rendering the overplus.

"That the guardian of the poor of every parish, to be chosen by those who pay to the relief of the poor of the said parish, shall be chosen, the first time, within three months of the passing of the Act now proposed; that the guardians thus chosen by the respective parishes of each hundred shall have the inspection of all things relating to the employment and relief of the poor of the said hundred; that one-third part of the whole number of the guardians of every hundred thus chosen shall go out every year, the first year by lot out of the whole number, the second year by lot out of the remaining two-thirds, and for ever afterwards in their turns, so that after the first two years every one shall continue in three years successively and no longer; and that for the supply of any vacancy as it shall happen a new guardian be chosen, as aforesaid, in any respective parish at the same time that the overseers of the poor are usually chosen there, or at any other time within one month after any such vacancy.

"That the guardians of the poor of each respective hundred shall meet every year in Easter week, in the place where the stores of that hundred are kept, to take an account of the stock, and as often else at other times as shall be necessary to inspect the management of it and to give directions therein, and in all other things relating to the poor of the hundred.

"That no person in any parish shall be admitted to an allowance from the parish but by the joint consent of the guardian of the said parish and the vestry.

"That the said guardians also, each of them within the hundred whereof he is guardian, have the power of a justice of the peace over vagabonds and beggars, to make them passes, to send them to the seaport towns or houses of correction, as before proposed.

"These foregoing rules and methods being what we humbly conceive most proper to be put in practice for the employment and relief of the poor generally throughout the country, we now further humbly propose for the better and more easy attainment of the same end in cities and towns corporate, that it may be enacted,

"That in all cities and towns corporate the poor's tax be not levied by distinct parishes, but by one equal tax throughout the whole corporation.

"That in each corporation there be 12 guardians of the poor, chosen by the said corporation, whereof four to go out by lot at the end of the

first year, other four of the remaining number to go out also by lot the next year, and the remaining four the third year, and a new four chosen every year in the rooms of those that go out, to keep up the number of 12 full, and that no one continue in above three years successively.

"That these guardians have the power of setting up and ordering working schools as they see convenient, within each corporation respectively, to which schools the children of all that are relieved by the said corporation, from 3 to 14 years of age, shall be bound to come as long as they continue unemployed in some other settled service, to be approved of by the overseers of the poor of that parish to which they belong.

"That these guardians have also the sole power of ordering and disposing of the money raised in each corporation for the use of the poor, whether for the providing of materials to set them on work, or for the relieving of those whom they judge not able to earn their own livelihood, and that they be the sole judges who are or are not fit to receive public relief, and in what proportion.

"That the said guardians have also the power to send any persons begging without a lawful pass to the next seaport town or house of correction, as before propounded.

"That they have likewise power to appoint a treasurer to receive all money raised for the relief of the poor; which treasurer shall issue all such money only by their order, and shall once a year pass his accounts before them; and that they also appoint one or more storekeepers, as they shall see occasion, with such rewards or salaries as they think fit; which storekeepers shall in like manner be accountable unto them, provided always that the mayor or bailiffs or other chief officers of each corporation have notice given him that he may be present (which we humbly propose may be enjoined on all such officers respectively) at the passing of the accounts both of the treasurer and storekeepers of the poor within each respective corporation.

"That the teachers in each school, or some other person thereunto appointed, shall fetch from the respective storekeepers the materials they are appointed to work upon in that school, and in such quantities as they are ordered, which materials shall be manufactured accordingly, and then returned to the storekeeper, and by him be either given out to be further manufactured or else disposed of to the best advantage, as the guardians shall direct.

"That the overseers of the poor shall in like manner take from the storekeeper, and distribute unto those who are under the public relief, such materials, and in such proportions, as shall be ordered each of them for a week's work, and not pay unto any of the poor so employed the allowance appointed them till they bring back their respective tasks well performed.

"That the overseers of the poor of each parish shall be chosen as they are now, and have the same power to collect the poor's rates of their respective parishes as now, but that they issue out the money so collected for the relief and maintenance of the poor according to such orders and directions as they shall receive from the guardians. And that the accounts of the overseers of the poor of each parish, at the end of their year, shall be laid before such persons as the parish shall appoint to inspect them, that they may make such observations on the said accounts, or exceptions against them, as they may be liable to, and that then the said accounts, with those observations and exceptions, be examined by the treasurer and two of the guardians (whereof one to be nominated by the guardians themselves and the other by the

parish), and that the said accounts be passed by the allowance of those three.

"That the said guardians shall have power to appoint one or more beadles of beggars, which beadles shall be authorised and required to seize upon any stranger begging in the streets, or any one of the said corporation begging either without the badge appointed to be worn or at hours not allowed by the said guardians to beg in, and bring all such persons before any one of the said guardians. And that if any of the said beadles neglect their said duty, so that strangers or other beggars not having the badge appointed or at hours not allowed, be found frequenting the streets, the said guardians, upon complaint thereof made to them, shall have power and be required to punish the beadle so offending, for the first fault at their own discretion; but upon a second complaint proved before them, that they send the said beadle to the house of correction, or (if it be in a maritime county and the beadle offending be a lusty man and under 50 years of age), to the next seaport town, in order to the putting him aboard some of his Majesty's ships, to serve there three years as before proposed.

"That those who are not able to work at all, in corporations where there are no hospitals to receive them, be lodged three or four or more in one room, and yet more in one house, where one fire may serve, and one attendant may provide for many of them, with less charge than when they live at their own choice scatteringly.

"And, since the behaviour and wants of the poor are best known amongst their neighbours, and that they may have liberty do declare their wants and receive broken bread and meat or other charity from well-disposed people, that it be therefore permitted to those whose names are entered in the poor's book, and who wear the badges required,* to ask and receive alms in their respective parishes at certain hours of the day to be appointed by the guardians, but if any of these are taken begging at any other hour than those allowed, or out of their respective parishes, though within the same corporation, they shall be sent immediately, if they are under 14 years of age, to the working school to be whipped, and, if they are above 14, to the house of correction, to be remain there six weeks and so much longer as till the next quarter-sessions after the said six weeks are expired.

"That if any person die for want of due relief in any parish in which he ought to be relieved, the said parish be fined according to the circumstances of the fact and the heinousness of the crime.

"That every master of the king's ships shall be bound to receive without money, once every year (if offered him by the magistrate or other officer of any place within the bounds of the port where his ship shall be), one boy, sound of limb, above 18 years of age, who shall be his apprentice for nine years." †

* A law passed shortly before Locke's preparation of this document (8 & 9 William III., cap. 30), chiefly to make new arrangements for the settlement and removal of paupers, and for the apprenticeship of pauper-children, had stipulated that no one should be allowed to beg who did not wear the distinctive badge of the parish to which he belonged.

† Board of Trade Papers Domestic, bundle B, No. 6.

(ii).—THE "PARIS NATIONAL WORKS" OF 1848.

One of the most famous and most extensive attempts that has been made in modern times to provide employment on the part of the State for the unemployed was probably that of the French Provisional Government immediately after the Revolution of 1848. The establishment, difficulties, and failure of the national works organised in Paris by M. Émile Thomas, under the direction of M. Marie, the Minister of Public Works, have been so often referred to since, that it has been thought desirable to give here some account of them drawn, so far as possible, from actual documents and decrees.* It should, however, be distinctly understood, that the state of Paris at the time, the acuteness of the industrial and political crisis, the supposed necessity of doing something at once on a large scale for political no less than economic reasons, and the jealousies and intrigues of opposing parties both within and outside the Provisional Government, were all factors in the situation which tended to make difficult, if not impossible, the execution of any carefully planned scheme. The most cursory examination of the evidence shows that it is impossible to judge correctly of the "Ateliers Nationaux" on the supposition that they were merely a *bond fide* effort to carry out the decree establishing the "right to work."

The violent and sudden crisis of the Revolution of February 1848, naturally disturbed the course of industry in Paris. There was a commercial panic, and large numbers of workpeople were thrown out of work. Thus the prevailing want of employment was one of the first questions with which the Provisional Government, established on February 24th, 1848, found itself face to face: On February 25th, on the proposal of Louis Blanc, and on the demand of a deputation claiming to represent the people, the Provisional Government passed a decree from which the following is an extract:—

"The Provisional Government of the French Republic undertakes to guarantee the existence of the workmen by work. It undertakes to guarantee work for every citizen."

For the purpose of carrying out this decree, Louis Blanc advocated the formation of a Ministry of Labour, but this was

* The chief authorities consulted are—"Histoire des Ateliers Nationaux," Émile Thomas (1848); "Histoire de la Révolution Française," Louis Blanc; "Histoire de la Révolution de 1848" (Lamartine); *Le Placement des Employés* (Office du Travail), 1892.

negatived on the ground that a mere provisional Government could not thus anticipate the decision of the future assembly. In place of it, as a compromise, a Government Labour Commission, under the presidency of Louis Blanc, was established by a decree of February 28th, with power of inquiry and consultation only. The Commission met at the Luxembourg. Meanwhile the carrying out of the decree of February 25th, by the establishment of national workshops, was confided not to this Commission but to the Minister of Public Works, M. Marie, by the following decree of February 26th:—

“The Provisional Government decrees the immediate establishment of national workshops. The Minister of Public Works is entrusted with the execution of the present decree.”

This was followed next day by a decree specifying various public works to be started.

“Earth works shall be started without delay:—

1. To clear the trench of Clamart and convey the earth to Paris, so as to prepare for the construction of a railway station for the Chemin de fer de l'Ouest between the outer tunnel and the Boulevard.
2. To construct the Paris terminus of the Paris-Chartres railway.
3. To improve the navigation of the Oise.
4. To extend the Sceaux railway to Orsay.”*

At the same time the immediate resumption of work on Government buildings, &c., was decreed. Besides the works organised by the Minister of Public Works, the Minister of War opened works in the Champs de Mars. From this time the responsibility for the national works as actually organised rested primarily with M. Marie, the Minister of Public Works, while Louis Blanc and the Commission at the Luxembourg, organised co-operative societies of tailors, and other trades, to which the State gave certain contracts to execute. The history of these societies has an interest of its own, but they were entirely separate from the national works organised by the State.

Émile Thomas (who subsequently acted as director of the national works) thus describes their arrangement and difficulties in their earliest stages.†

“Admission to these various works was obtained in the following manner:—

“The workman first of all obtained a certificate from the landlord of his house, or furnished apartments, showing his address, whether in Paris or the department of Seine.

“This certificate was visad and stamped by the police commissary of the district. The workman then repaired to the office of the *maire* of his ward, and, on delivering this document, received in exchange a note of admission to the national works, bearing his name, residence, and calling, and enabling him to be

* *Le Placement des Employés (Office du Travail)*, p. 115.

† *Histoire des Ateliers Nationaux*, p. 29.

received by the director of the workplaces in which vacancies existed.

"All went well while the number of the unemployed was less than 6,000, but as soon as that number was exceeded the workmen of each *arrondissement*, after having visited all the open works in succession without result, returned to their *mairie's* offices tired, starving, and discontented.

"The workmen had been promised bread when work was not to be had, which was reasonable and charitable; the great mistake was, however, then committed of giving them money, and distributing it in public at the offices of the *maires* instead of distributing assistance in kind, which might have been done, so easily through the agency of the *bureaux de bienfaisance*.

"Each *mairie's* office was authorised to pay every unemployed workman 1.50 frs. per day on production of a ticket showing that there was no vacancy for him in the national works.

"The fixed sum of 2 francs was paid to any workman engaged on the public excavation works, without regard to his age, the work done, or his calling. . . . The workman made the following simple calculation, and he made it aloud: 'The State gives me 80 *sous* for doing nothing, it pays me 40 *sous* when I work, so I need only work to the extent of 10 *sous*.' This was logical.

"The works opened by the Minister of Public Works being far distant from each other, and the workmen not being able to visit them all in turn to make certain that there were no vacancies for them, two central bureaux were established, one at the Halle-aux-Veaux under M. Wissocq, the other near the *mairie's* office in the 5th *arrondissement* in the Rue de Bondy, entrusted to M. Higonet. . . . The workmen went to have their tickets examined at one of these bureaux; and the absence of employment having been proved, they returned to get their 30 *sous* at their *maires' offices*."

As the numbers claiming work or relief rapidly increased the whole organisation got rapidly out of hand, and both the bureaux and the *mairie's* offices became the centres of tumultuous crowds, which those in charge were quite unable to satisfy or keep in order. On March 6th, therefore, Émile Thomas, a chemist connected with the *Ecole Centrale*, was commissioned by M. Marie to re-organise the works on a semi-military plan, in which he was aided by some of the senior pupils of the *Ecole Centrale*.

The workmen were divided into companies, each of which, when the organisation was fully developed, contained 900 men. Each company was divided into four lieutenancies, each containing 224 men and a lieutenant, and each lieutenancy into four brigades, each with 55 men and a brigadier. Finally each brigade was divided into five squads with ten men and a chief of squad, all belonging to the same *arrondissement*. The brigadiers and chiefs of squads were elected by the men

whom they had to control. This complicated organisation was not fully developed during the first month.

On March 5th, when Emile Thomas took the work in hand, the number of unemployed in Paris was estimated at from 13,000 to 14,000, in addition to 4,000 or 5,000 already engaged on public works.* This number continued steadily to increase day by day, without, however, any corresponding expansion of the public works. The engineer officers were directed by the Government to suggest plans for new works, but they appeared unable or unwilling to do so, and day after day slipped by, the director having to exercise all his ingenuity to provide some means of occupying the idle masses of men who had been enrolled, and who were drawing 30 sous a day from the State.

On March 15th, after a meeting of the chief engineers, who were still unable to suggest means of employing usefully more than a few hundred of the 14,000 unemployed men, it was resolved to undertake a series of works in the plain of Monceaux, which, if serving no other object, would at least have the advantage of keeping the crowd employed. Already the whole scheme was costing 20,000 francs a day, and measures were contemplated for reducing and finally extinguishing the pay to the idle. The following is an extract from an order of the day dated March 16th:—

“From to-morrow, Friday, the 17th inst., the daily pay of workmen who are not working will be reduced to 1 franc instead of 1½ francs. The director can guarantee to workmen that from this day forward they will be employed at least every other day; in this case their pay will be 2 francs.”

Already political feeling between the moderate and the extreme sections of the Provisional Government was running high in view of the elections which were fixed for April. The strength of the “moderate” party, centred in the Hôtel de Ville, that of the socialists in the Luxembourg. From the middle of March onwards the national works depended politically on the Hôtel de Ville,† and were more and more utilised to counteract the influence of the Luxembourg, and to secure the return of the Hôtel de Ville “list” of candidates at the elections. Hence from this time it becomes progressively more difficult to treat the works as a purely economic experiment.‡

Private industry was practically at a standstill and workshops were closing every day: some for want of capital, others through strikes of their workmen who had recourse to the national works if their demands were not granted. The Minister of Public Works vainly issued on March 20th a pro-

* *Histoire des Ateliers Nationaux*, p. 54.

† See the Proclamation to the workmen of the Mayor of Paris, dated March 19th, 1848, from which date M. Emile Thomas says, “My relations were clearly defined. Although I had only to consult the Minister of Public Works for administrative purposes I depended politically on the Mayor of Paris.” (*Histoire*, p. 107.)

‡ *Ibid.*, pp. 146, 147.

clamation urging the workmen to return to their workshops, and pointing out that large workshops had been closed or were threatened with closing owing to the crisis. At this time 12,000 men were actually employed at the national works, and the number of men enrolled was increasing very rapidly.

It may be well at this point to give in full the regulations in force in the works, from which at least, the nominal character of their organisation may be gathered. It should be added that the regulations, which are here given complete, were only gradually formulated.

REPUBLIC OF FRANCE.*

NATIONAL WORKS.

REGULATIONS FOR ENROLMENT IN BRIGADES.

§ I. Enrolment in brigades will take place for the different *arrondissements* in the order, and at the time indicated by an order of the day sent to the offices of the *maires*.

§ II. No enrolment in brigades takes place on Sundays or national holidays.

§ III. In order to be enrolled, a workman must—

- (a.) Certify at the office of the *maire* of his district, that he is over 16 years of age, or else fatherless, or the eldest of a family of six children.
- (b.) He must appear in person, and only on the day, and at the hour specified for his *arrondissement*, provided with a note bearing his name, calling, address, the stamp of the *maire* of his district, and dated at least the day previous to the enrolment.
- (c.) If a workman is on guard on the day of admission for his *arrondissement*, he shall ask leave from the officer in charge of the guard in order to go to the central bureau.
- (d.) A workman who desires to be enrolled in a brigade which has already been formed, must appear in person on the day and at the time fixed for his *arrondissement*, with a message from the chief of that brigade, stating his own number, that of the company and of the service.
- (e.) A workman who has lost his book shall call at the *bureau des réclamations* with a certificate from the chief of his company, in order to obtain a fresh one; he shall then pay 50 centimes.
- (f.) The workmen shall enter by brigades made up of 56 of the men who are present. Each brigade which presents itself incomplete shall be completed by the latest arrivals of the following brigade. No brigade shall start uncompleted from the bureau of enrolment, except the last.
- (g.) Brigadiers and chiefs of squads are elected beforehand by the workmen; but their brigade or squad may be taken to fill up incomplete lists belonging to the same *arrondissement*. Their nomination is not confirmed until after the enrolment in brigades.
- (h.) Every day a lieutenant sent by the *chef de l'arrondissement* shall come to announce the service numbers of the companies and brigades to which newly-enrolled workmen belong, in order that these

* Histoire des Ateliers Nationaux, pp. 59-78.

numbers may be entered on their books. These books, moreover, shall bear the names and addresses of the *chefs de service* of the men in charge of companies, of the lieutenants, brigadiers, and chiefs of squads.

The Commissary of the Republic,
Director of National Works,
EMILE THOMAS.

REPUBLIC OF FRANCE.

MINISTER OF PUBLIC WORKS.

NATIONAL WORKS.

GENERAL REGULATIONS FOR WORKMEN ENGAGED ON THE WORKS OR AWAITING ENGAGEMENT.

The Commissary of the Republic, Director of the National Works, considering that hitherto different orders of the day have regulated the measures adopted for the administration of these works :

That it is important to combine in one regulation the different orders of the day enumerated above :

Enacts the following provisions which have been discussed in a council of the *chefs d'arrondissement*, and laid before the assembly of workmen's delegates engaged in the national works, who have adopted them in their entirety.

The payments of brigadiers, chiefs of squads, and workmen are fixed as follows :—

Days of Work.

				fr.	c.	
Brigadiers	-	-	-	3	0	per day.
Chiefs of squads	-	-	-	2	50	"
Workmen	-	-	-	2	0	"

Non-working Days.

				fr.	c.	
Brigadiers	-	-	-	3	0	per day.
Chiefs of squads	-	-	-	1	50	"
Workmen	-	-	-	1	0	"

On Sundays work is suspended; brigadiers, chiefs of squads, and workmen receive no pay.

No person enrolled in a brigade shall be entitled to two days' work until after the first Monday following his enrolment.

Chiefs of squads, and workmen selected for guard duty on any day except Sundays, or legal holidays, shall be considered as discharging a public duty, and shall be entitled to the payment accorded for days of active work, provided that within 24 hours they deliver to the chief of their company the document summoning them on guard, stamped with the seal of the staff officer of their legion, which document must bear the Christian name of the workman. After 24 hours the document will not be accepted.

The document, handed as aforesaid to the chief of the company, shall be transmitted to the director by the *chef de service* stating the

arrondissement, the service, the company, and the brigade to which the workman belongs.

Extra guard duty, and similar duty when performed as a punishment are excepted from the above provisions.

Lieutenants and brigadiers are exempted from national guard duty by the *chef de l'arrondissement*, who shall write to the sergeant-major who has summoned them.

The list of the men who have received the indemnity for guard duty shall be forwarded on the Monday and Thursday of each week, at one o'clock, to the office of the sub-directorate of M. Dellisse, with the names and addresses of the men who have been summoned.

Men who are ill and confined to bed, and not admitted to the hospitals, receive without distinction, the payment of two francs per day from the special agents of the medical bureau if their state of health has been previously attested by a medical certificate, visad by the commissary of police, and verified by one of the doctors of the central bureau.

Men admitted to the hospitals shall not be paid, as the State bears the cost of the hospital treatment; if they are married their wives and children shall receive indoor relief.

The family of every workman admitted to the hospital in consequence of injuries sustained during work receives the wages payable to the latter when not engaged in actual work.

On days when the weather is considered too bad for the proper execution of the works, operations shall be suspended. The *chef de l'arrondissement* shall decide as to the possibility of carrying on the work.

Any workman who, having presented himself in his turn for work, leaves without the permission of the *chef de service* shall be considered as absent.

Should he obtain leave to absent himself there will be deducted, at the time of payment, quarter, half, or three-quarters of the day's pay, according to the time at which he has left.

With a view to simplifying and reducing the number of separate accounts the squad roll sheets are from this day suppressed, and new roll sheets by brigades will be established after the following model :—

PUBLIC WORK.		REPUBLIC OF FRANCE.			NATIONAL WORKS.	
ROLL SHEET.						
Arrondissement.		Service.			Company.	
Day of		Brigade.			1848.	
Squad No.	Consecutive Number.	Surnames, Christian Names and Ranks. The Brigadier should place his Name and Signature first.	Wages to pay.	Sums paid.	Fines	Remarks. State cause of Punishment, Absence, &c.

Companies not occupied in active work shall receive payment in a place determined by the *chefs de service*, and of which the lieutenants, brigadiers, and chiefs of squads shall be notified.

Payment will begin at half-past three, and conclude at half-past four.

The lieutenants are responsible for the payment to the chiefs of their companies. This payment shall be made, under the superintendence of the lieutenant, by the brigadiers, assisted by a pay clerk.

The roll sheet bears the names of the 56 men who make up a brigade, including the brigadier and the chiefs of squads. This sheet shall be delivered on the preceding day to the brigadier, who shall first write his name at the top and then enter those of his 55 men. Each man must always occupy the same place in the numerical order of the roll sheet.

When the chief of a brigade pays a workman, he shall make the latter sign opposite to his name in the column provided for that purpose. Any one refusing to sign shall not be paid. If the workman is unable to sign, a man belonging to his squad, and the delegate of the same, shall certify by their signatures that the payment took place in their presence.

The workman, on receiving his pay, shall hand his book to the brigadier, who shall initial it, inserting the date, and the sum paid.

The lieutenant shall receive the roll sheet from the brigadier, and return it, immediately after the payment has concluded, to the chief of his company, so that the latter may, in his turn send it back to his *chef de service*.

Fines for Breaches of Regulations.

Chiefs of brigade whose roll sheets are not drawn up as prescribed by the present regulation shall be liable to a fine of one franc. In the case of serious irregularities they shall be dismissed.

Any workman who, without just cause, fails to reply when his name is called, shall not be paid, unless his absence be duly justified on the following day.

Any workman who, without just cause, has on two successive occasions failed to reply to his name at pay-time, shall be struck off the lists.

A daily report of the fines shall be transmitted by the *chefs de service* to the *chefs d'arrondissement*.

Any brigadier, chief of a squad, or workman fined three times in one fortnight shall be struck off the lists.

Fines are inflicted on workmen by the chiefs of companies on the reports of the brigadiers and lieutenants.

The accumulated fines shall be distributed every fortnight among the workmen of each brigade.

SPECIAL PROVISIONS AFFECTING BRIGADIERS AND CHIEFS OF SQUADS.

No chief elected by the workmen may resign his post, except for very grave reasons, of which the administration shall be the judge.

A stoppage of 5 francs shall be made from the pay of chiefs of squads, for the purpose shown further on under the article "Tools."

Stoppages shall be made from the pay of brigadiers, the total of which will form a guarantee of 15 francs. When this sum has been reached no further stoppage shall be made.

Tickets for Relief in Kind.

Tickets for bread, meat, and soup are distributed at the relieving office, 4, Rue de Chartres, between 8 a.m. and 4 p.m. every day to the indigent fathers of families belonging to each brigade, in the following proportion, and on presentation of the list given by the delegate, verified and viséd by the chief of the company.

Bread.

No. of children.		Kilo-grams.	Weight. (Avoir.). lbs. ozs.
1	$\frac{1}{2}$	0 9
2	$\frac{1}{2}$	1 1
3	$\frac{1}{2}$	1 10
4	1	2 3
5	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2 12
6	$1\frac{1}{2}$	3 5
7	$1\frac{1}{2}$	3 13
8	2	4 6
9	$2\frac{1}{2}$	4 15
10	$2\frac{1}{2}$	5 8

Bread and Meat.

(1.) Fathers of families who are ill and treated at the hospital are not paid. Their wives and children shall receive assistance in bread, meat, and soup, daily.

(2.) Fathers of families who are ill, but are treated at their own homes, receive working pay—that is to say, two francs; medicines and medical attendance are rendered gratis. In this case they are only entitled to the allowance of bread, meat, and soup granted to all indigent fathers of families.

General Regulations.

(3.) For families numbering from six to ten children and over, the distribution of food shall take place three times a week.

For families of three to five children, twice a week.

For families of one to two children, once a week.

Medical Office.

An office is organised under the direction of the Chief Physicians Bujeon and Gaston Gaudinot, 14, Avenue Chateaubriand.

The workmen engaged in the national works alone are admitted—

(1.) For consultation, which takes place every day between the hours of 8 and 10 in the morning.

(2.) For the delivery of applications from sick persons confined to bed for domiciliary visits, daily between the hours of 8 and 4. These visits are made by the chief and assistant physicians.

Consultations.

All workmen who are ill are admitted to consultation on presenting their book. They receive (1) advice, medicine, and the dressing of any wounds or injuries; (2) temporary dispensations from work, in

the case of simple indisposition; such dispensations may not exceed the term of ten days.

For any workman who presents himself for consultation, and only obtains a medical prescription, without dispensation from work, the fixing of the seal and date on his book shall certify to the brigadier that the workman has presented himself for consultation without receiving the indemnity and that he is entitled to the pay of one franc.

Domiciliary Visits.

Workmen confined to bed receive domiciliary visits in response to an application transmitted by their chief of brigade or delegate, and addressed to the medical bureau, open between the hours of 8 and 4. In case of urgency patients may apply to the physician nominated by the administration.

Twelve physicians are attached to the medical office; a list of the patients whom they have to visit is sent to them every morning. These patients receive attendance on the same day. In case of urgency patients may, as already stated in the order of the day of May 10th, apply to the nearest doctor, who shall receive two francs for his visit. The patient must, at the same time, give notice to the medical office, so that the physician of the administration may visit him on the following day.

The wives and children of workmen are likewise entitled to medical assistance.

The delegates shall receive the list of the addresses of the physicians in the various *arrondissements*.

The applicant, in case of simple indisposition, receives —

- (1.) Advice; medicines, which are supplied by certain stated apothecaries; and a few days' dispensation from work, towards which he will be assisted with 1 fr. 25 c. per day. Only workmen confined to bed and who have families dependent on them shall be entitled to the pay of 2 francs.
- (2.) In the case of serious illnesses requiring a period of more than 10 days, workmen must obtain admission to a hospital or apply to the ordinary physicians of the benevolent institutions.

Payment and Assistance to Sick Persons.

1. Workmen who, after consultation, have received a dispensation from work, shall receive, in addition to attendance and medicine, a sum of 1 fr. 25 c. per day until the expiration of that period. This payment shall be made at the medical office by the cashier, who must sign his name below the seal of the medical department. He shall only remit 25 centimes for each day's leave. The pay of 1 franc is to be remitted to the house by the delegate of the brigade.

The payment allowed by the physician to a patient confined to bed shall each day be discharged by the medical office.

The physician summoned to the house of a sick workman shall in case of urgency attend to the family of the latter.

Workmen at the Works.

The chiefs of companies, lieutenants, brigadiers, chiefs of squads, and workmen must be assembled at half-past six at the meeting place, whence they are to set out for the works.

The *chef d'arrondissement* shall determine the hour of arrival at the works according to the distance to be traversed by the men in order to reach them.

The meal times are fixed as follows :—

Morning meal, 1 hour, 9 to 10.

Evening meal, 1 hour, 2 to 3.

Work shall cease at six o'clock in the evening.

Two roll-calls at least shall be undertaken every day by the chiefs of companies. Any inspector passing through the works may demand a supplementary roll-call from the chief of a company, or, in the absence of the latter, from the lieutenant, or even from the brigadiers.

Any workman failing to answer incurs a fine of 25 centimes. Failure to respond at two calls entails the loss of the day's pay.

Any workman who fails during two days to appear at his yard shall be struck off the lists, except in one of the circumstances provided for by the above order of the day regulating payment.

Any workman leaving the works for a moment without the permission of the chief or deputy chief of the company shall be fined 50 centimes.

The delegates shall not make inquiries of the workmen, nor receive their claims during working hours.

Only the central delegates shall be admitted to the relieving offices; they must present the lists which have been handed them by the three other delegates.

Any workman neglecting his work, on being reported by the chief of his company, by the lieutenant, or inspector, shall be fined 50 centimes.

All gaming is prohibited during working hours; infractions of this clause shall entail a fine of 50 centimes.

Any workman, or person in charge of a squad or brigade, refusing to obey his superiors, or found under the influence of drink on the works, shall forfeit his day's pay. If he repeat the offence he shall be struck off the lists.

Under certain circumstances of a grave nature, not provided for in the regulations, the *chef d'arrondissement* is authorised to suspend any officer or workman from his duties pending the decision of the administration. A report on the step taken shall be immediately made to the director.

No officer elected by the workmen can be deprived of his office until the matter has been inquired into by the administration.

Every workman must carry his book about his person and show it at the first request of one of his superiors.

The chiefs of squads are always at the disposal of the brigadier and the delegate to aid them in their duties.

Any brigadier or chief of a squad, deprived of his rank on the report of one of his superiors, may make a written appeal to the director, but should his claims not be found valid, he shall return to the ranks as a simple workman and shall not be eligible for re-election.

No measure, purchase, or payment is valid without the written authority of the director.

Tools.

The dépôt for all tools belonging to the national works, is situated in the Rue Chartres, No 4.

Divisional dépôts shall be established in the yard; the tools must be

deposited there every evening. Special keepers, selected and appointed by the sub-director of Stores, shall be responsible for the tools during the time they are not in use.

The brigadiers shall, every morning and evening, sign the sheet regarding the putting in and taking out of the tools.

All the tools shall be marked "A. N." This mark shall be placed on the sheds by the storekeepers for tools already taken out.

No tool may leave the dépôt without a ticket from the *chef de service* for whom it is intended, visad by the sub-director of Stores.

No purchase of a tool shall take place without a written order of the sub-director; this order is to be kept by the merchant to establish his claim for payment.

No tool shall be replaced in the dépôt except on presentation to the keeper of a ticket from the sub-director.

No tool shall be used which has not first been entered and sent out from the store in the regular way.

Brigadiers are responsible for all the tools of their brigade. The sum of 15 francs, which is deducted from their pay, shall answer for the consequences of this responsibility.

The person in charge of a squad is answerable to his brigadier for the tools of his squad. The five francs deducted from his pay shall also be guarantee for the consequences of this responsibility.

Every workman is responsible to the man in charge of his squad for the tools entrusted to him.

Tools, broken or unfit for service, should be returned to the dépôt so as to be replaced by an equal number of serviceable ones.

Commissary of the Republic,

Director of National Works,

ÉMILE THOMAS.

The administration of the works was divided among three sub-directors, of whom one dealt with questions of general order, enrolment in brigades, staff and relief; the second had charge of the accounts, stores, and the internal administration of the offices and the out-door police; and the third was concerned with actually carrying out the works and studying plans proposed for their extension. Besides the large staff of clerks, cashiers and book-keepers, an army of inspectors and agents was employed. Twelve *inspecteurs d'ordre* were charged with carrying out the regulations at the works and reporting on the state of discipline to the first sub-directorate. Eight special commissaries originally chosen from the more turbulent of the populace were attached to the enrolment and relief offices to preserve order among the applicants. Sixteen doctors were employed from time to time at the medical relief office. Forty-eight agents visited a certain number of workmen's houses every day to satisfy themselves as to the genuineness of applications for relief; four inspectors supervised the stores, including tools, vehicles, materials, and articles manufactured in the special workshops described below. An office of out-door police employing six or seven persons was engaged in inquiring and reporting as to cases of suspected fraud. Finally, the actual inspection of the carrying out of the public

works was entrusted to twelve inspectors under the direction of a chief inspector. Daily meetings of inspectors took place for consultation.

That the administration of the works was on an altogether unnecessary scale is not denied even by the director, who, however, declared that he was continually under the necessity of finding places for crowds of applicants sent to him with recommendations which he could not resist. Thus a large number of actors, painters, commercial clerks, and others thrown out of work by the crisis, having been refused tickets for admission to the works as not wearing the workman's blouse, were employed by the director as pay agents. Notwithstanding this army of officials it is stated that "no serious control was exercised over these crowds of humanity. Many of the workmen had themselves enrolled in several brigades so as to draw wages from each; others came solely for the purpose of drawing wages though they worked as usual in private workshops. Brigadiers exaggerated the number of men in their brigades in order to appropriate the excess wages which they were supposed to distribute, workmen who had a disagreement with their employers combined, deserted their own workshops, and went to the national workshops. This was done by the paper stainers and the hatters."*

Towards the middle of April the numbers enrolled again far outran the number for whom work of any kind could be provided. The director, left to his own resources, organized a few special workshops to employ certain classes of workmen at their own trades. Thus a number of wheelwrights and joiners were employed to mend the tools which were constantly being broken by the inexperienced workmen. Workshops of shoemakers and tailors were also established, from which the more needy and ill-clad of the workmen could be supplied with cheap clothes and boots. It was, however, impossible to persuade the shoemakers to accept this arrangement, by which they were compelled actually to work instead of loafing, except by the threat of the alternative of expulsion from the national works. After a time the system, in these special workshops, was changed from time work to piece-work, but not in most cases without great opposition from the workmen.

Another plan of M. Thomas was to attempt to stimulate the building trades of Paris, by advancing to employers who would re-open their workshops a sum of one franc a day, on certain terms of repayment, for each workman employed. He hoped thus to get off his hands a large proportion of the 20,000 members of the building trades who now crowded the national works. The proposal, however, was rejected, as was also a proposition to employ the building operatives in erecting workmen's dwellings.

* *Le Placement des Employés, &c., p. 116.*

The following table, based upon the published results of a census of the national works taken on May 19th, shows the magnitude to which the numbers enrolled had by this time attained and the composition of this vast army by trades :—

Building trades	-	-	-	18,182
Furnishing and wood-working trades	-	-	-	12,801
Engineering and metal trades	-	-	-	8,345
Clothing trades	-	-	-	5,806
Textile trades	-	-	-	3,602
Jewellery, fine instruments, goldsmiths, &c.	-	-	-	5,361
Printing, books, paper, &c.	-	-	-	3,442
Leather and fur trades	-	-	-	1,117
Glass, pottery, sculpture, &c.	-	-	-	1,468
Food and drink preparation	-	-	-	1,179
Workers in rope and fibre, &c.	-	-	-	432
„ „ chemicals, oils, &c.	-	-	-	168
Public and private service, messengers, and transport	-	-	-	2,439
Dealers, &c.	-	-	-	465
Commercial	-	-	-	1,143
Labour, &c.	-	-	-	11,163
Miscellaneous employment	-	-	-	3,194
Unoccupied	-	-	-	7,635
				<hr/>
				87,942*

The National Assembly, elected by universal suffrage, met on May 4th. A few days later the Executive Commission was elected, containing all the members of the Provisional Government except Louis Blanc and Albert, the Socialist representatives. On May 10th Louis Blanc renewed his motion for a Minister of Labour, which was rejected. On the 15th the Assembly was invaded by the mob, and from that time the anti-socialist tendency of the Government became more marked. The new Government immediately determined to reduce and suppress the national works, which were draining the Treasury and demoralising the people, and which were suspected of being centres of intrigue on the part of Louis Bonaparte.

On May 15th M. Marie was transferred to another post in the Provisional Government, and was succeeded by M. Trélat, who at once set about the task of reduction.

On May 24th the project of the Commission of the Executive Power was conveyed by him to the director in the following terms :—

“ SIR,

“ I HAVE the honour to inform you that the *Commission du Pouvoir Exécutif* has just adopted the following measures regarding the national works :—

“ 1. Unmarried workmen from 18 to 25 years of age shall be invited to enlist under the flag of the Republic, in order to complete the different regiments of the army.

“ Those who refuse to enlist for voluntary service shall be at once struck off the brigade-rolls of the national works.

* *Histoire des Ateliers Nationaux*, pp. 376–8.

"2. A census of the workmen of Paris shall be undertaken without delay. This census shall be carried out concurrently by the offices of the *maires*, and by the clerks of the central office of national works appointed for the purpose.

"Workmen who are unable to afford regular proof of a six months' residence before the 24th of May shall be dismissed, and shall cease to receive wages and relief.

"3. The lists of workmen drawn up according to *arrondissement* and occupation shall be placed in a special office, established as near as possible to the centre of Paris, and where information regarding them shall be given to masters by the employés of the administration. Masters may make a requisition for such number of these workmen as they shall declare necessary for the resumption or continuation of their works. Those who refuse to follow them shall be instantly struck off the general roll of the national works.

"4. Workmen not excluded under the foregoing provisions, and continuing temporarily to form part of the national works must work by the piece and not by the day.

"5. There shall be organised, with the least possible delay, brigades of workmen which shall be drafted into the departments for employment, under the direction of the engineers '*des ponts et chaussées*,' in the execution of extensive public works.

"I beg, sir, that you will take steps as quickly as possible for the application of the provisions decreed by the *Commission du Pouvoir Exécutif*. The necessary lists should be prepared for distinguishing those workmen, who, owing to their age, must enlist in the armies of the Republic; those who will have to be sent back to their respective departments owing to inability to give regular proof of a six months' residence; those for whom employers might again apply, or whom they might employ; and finally those whom it will be expedient to enrol in brigades as destined for the great works of the provinces, and of the suburbs of Paris. I will inform you to-morrow of the place for depositing the lists of workmen of various callings not excluded from the national works in virtue of the two first provisions, and for informing employers with regard to them.

"You will have to appoint two or three clerks of your administration who will have to remain in that locality, for the purpose of placing at the disposal of employers the workmen for whom they apply.

"I leave to you the duty of informing the public by means of placards and newspaper advertisements of the day when application may be made at the *bureau des renseignements*. You understand that this measure is extremely urgent, and that no single moment should be lost in carrying it out.

"I attach great importance to the measure which re-establishes piece-work as the basis of wages. You should apply it at once.

"Later on I will furnish you with instructions as to the organisation of brigades of workmen to be drafted into the departments.

"For the Minister of Public Works,

"P. P. the General Secretary,

"BOULAGE."

On the following day a Commission, including a number of engineers and other practical men, was appointed to inquire into the condition of the national works and to devise measures for reducing their cost "without prejudice to the sacred principle of

the *guarantee of work*," and to superintend the carrying out of these measures. M. Lalanne, an engineer of bridges and roads acted as secretary. The first measure ordered was a complete census of the workmen in the national works. On May 26th the director Émile Thomas was compelled to resign and was sent, practically under arrest, to Bordeaux on the pretext of a commission to study the prolongation of a canal. He was succeeded as director by M. Lalanne. On May 30th the National Assembly decreed the substitution of piece-work for day-work, but the change was difficult to carry out, and the results were unsatisfactory. On June 15th the Assembly determined on the suppression of the works, and to guard against the consequences an army under General Cavaignac was concentrated on Paris. On June 22nd the proposals for the enlistment of workmen between 18 and 25 and the other measures of reduction detailed in M. Trélat's letter to Émile Thomas of May 24th appeared in the "*Moniteur*," and the same day an attempt was made to organise the first batch of departures from Paris. The result was the bloody insurrection of June 23rd and following days, which, thanks to the military organization of the national works, was only suppressed after three days of street fighting. In the course of the insurrection the Executive Commission resigned, and General Cavaignac became dictator.

Soon after this Louis Napoleon was elected President of the Republic. The gigantic schemes subsequently carried out under the Second Empire for the re-building of large parts of Paris, served for many years to provide employment for Paris workmen, and while they lasted, formed an effective substitute for the ill-fated national works.

(iii.) THE COTTON FAMINE AND THE PUBLIC WORKS ACT.

On the 29th of April 1861 President Lincoln issued a proclamation declaring the ports of the States seceding from the Union subject to a strict blockade. It was expected that the blockade would be extensively evaded and that by means of inland navigation and railways the raw material for the cotton manufacture would find its way to Europe through the Northern States. The Confederate Congress, however, passed an Act prohibiting, under the strictest penalties, the export of cotton wool, except by sea, from and after the 1st of June. Meanwhile, on the 13th of May, the British Government issued a proclamation commanding the observance of a rigid neutrality between the belligerents, and the example was followed a few days later by the French Government. An end was thus put to commerce with the Southern States. By the end of autumn short time had become the rule in the cotton mills in Lancashire, in the mills that still kept going, and of these the number had in many cases greatly diminished. In the Fourteenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Board for the year 1861-62 it is stated that "the lamentable events which have taken place in the United States of America have not only paralysed one of the principal manufactures of this country, by stopping the supply and raising the price of cotton to about double its usual amount, but have deranged one of the most important of the markets for the chief products of our industry." The increase throughout the cotton manufacturing districts in the weekly average number of paupers throughout the half-year ended at Lady-day 1862, on a comparison with the corresponding period of 1861, was 26,512, or 47·6 per cent.*

A circular was issued by the Poor Law Board, dated the 11th November, 1861, stating that the Board viewed with some apprehension the effects which might ensue from the stagnation in the cotton trade, and asking the guardians of unions in the cotton manufacturing district to furnish the Board with a report of the position and prospects of their district, and as to the condition of the class more immediately affected by any displacement of the ordinary employment of the district.†

The answers to this circular assured the Board that no serious pressure existed at that time, and that generally the guardians were prepared to meet any emergency which might be expected to arise.‡

In the fifteenth annual report of the Poor Law Board for 1862-63, it was stated that the number of persons in receipt of relief in the cotton district, had increased rapidly from the

* Fourteenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Board, 1861-62, p. 15.

† " " " " Appendix, p.
‡ " " " " p. 17.

commencement to nearly the end of the year 1862. In consequence of the very heavy and extraordinary burdens to which the ratepayers in the cotton manufacturing districts were being subjected, an Act was passed entitled "An Act to enable boards of guardians of certain unions to obtain temporary aid to meet extraordinary demands for relief therein." This Act applied to any unions situated wholly or in part within any of the counties of Lancaster, Chester, or Derby; and it had reference to the expenditure of such unions in the quarters ended at Michaelmas and Christmas 1862. One clause of this Act provided that if the aggregate expenditure of the union in and about the relief of the poor, should exceed the rate of 3s. in the £ per annum, the guardians might, under the authority of the Poor Law Board, borrow a sum sufficient to meet that excess, and charge the same on the common fund of the union, the loan being repayable by seven annual instalments with interest. In the quarter ending at Michaelmas, 1862, two unions only, Preston and Blackburn, had reached such an amount of expenditure in the quarter ending at Michaelmas, as enabled them to avail themselves of the borrowing powers conferred by the clause. By Christmas seven other unions found themselves obliged to make similar applications to the Board.*

In May of the same year the Poor Law Board had sent Mr. H. B. Farnall as the Special Commissioner of the Board to report upon the methods adopted of relieving distress in the cotton district, and to take superintending charge of the administration of relief. Local relief committees were formed throughout the distressed districts, and large sums of money from all parts of the United Kingdom, from India and the Colonial Dependencies, and from America, were received by these committees through a central committee having its head-quarters at Manchester, to whom the local committees were responsible.

At the beginning of December Mr. Farnall reported that whereas in the third week of November, 1861, the total number relieved in the 27 unions which formed the manufacturing district, was 53,206, or 2·7 per cent. of the population; during the week ending 22nd November 1862 the number relieved had reached 259,385, or 13·1 per cent. of the population. Nine unions showed a per-centage higher than this average, the per-centage being in—

Ashton-under-Lyme	-	-	-	25·1
Preston	-	-	-	20·4
Manchester	-	-	-	19·9
Blackburn	-	-	-	19·4
Todmorden	-	-	-	16·5
Haslingden	-	-	-	16·4
Glossop	-	-	-	16·1
Rochdale	-	-	-	15·0
Oldham	-	-	-	14·6

* Fifteenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Board, 1862-63, p. 15.

The classes of the total pauperism were:—

Old and infirm	-	-	-	36,815
Able-bodied adults	-	-	-	97,796
Persons under 16 years of age	-	-	-	124,774
				<hr/>
				259,385
				<hr/>

The weekly cost of outdoor relief as compared with the corresponding week in 1861 had increased 578·0 per cent.

In addition to the relief administered by the guardians, 105 local committees were administering funds subscribed voluntarily. Of these, 78 had reported to Mr. Farnall, and were then aiding 172,010 persons who were *not* also receiving parochial relief from the guardians of the poor. The total number of persons receiving parochial relief or aided by the charitable committees was 431,395, or 21·7 per cent. of the population of the 27 unions. The total weekly expenditure by the guardians in out-relief and by the committees of charity was 33,545*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.*, or 1*s.* 7½*d.* per week to each recipient.*

In subsequent reports Mr. Farnall gave returns from 141 local committees instead of 78. The maximum number relieved throughout the whole period of distress was attained during the week ending 6th December 1862. The following table gives the state of affairs from 6th December up to the end of May 1863:—

NUMBERS RELIEVED AND COST OF RELIEF 1862-3.

Week ending	Relieved by Guardians or by Guardians and Committees.	Relieved by Local Committees only (Average per week during month).	Total Number Relieved.	Total Cost of Relief.
6th December 1862	271,963	236,510	508,393	£ 43,471†
10th January 1863	244,307	236,310	480,617	43,188‡
23rd February 1863	215,218	236,442	441,670	38,710‡
26th March 1863	200,873	216,064	425,966	36,856§
26th April 1863	192,706	177,555	370,063	32,340
30th May 1863	160,597	125,793	286,390	28,140¶

Up to this period there had been hardly any movement in the direction of instituting public works for the employment of the men thrown out of work. The policy hitherto adopted is briefly summed up in the Fifteenth Annual Report of the Poor Law

* Fifteenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Board, 1862-63, Appendix, p. 46.

†	"	"	"	"	pp. 51-57.
‡	"	"	"	"	pp. 57-58.
§	"	"	"	"	p. 66.
	"	"	"	"	p. 76.
¶	"	"	"	"	p. 72.

Board, dated June 8th, 1863 : " We have urged upon the Guardians
 " the wholesome practice of setting to work all able-bodied men
 " to whom relief is afforded, and we believe that this practice has
 " to a great extent been followed. We have found it necessary,
 " however, throughout the manufacturing district of the north-
 " west of England, to acquiesce in a large amount of relief given
 " at variance with the provisions of the General Relief Regula-
 " tions Order."*

In a report dated April 10th, 1863, Mr. Farnall wrote :—

" It is a satisfaction to me to inform you that the Local
 Committees do not benefit the ratepayers solely by pecuniary
 aid, but also by means of the system of employment of the poor
 persons whom they are aiding. Of the 216,084 persons whom
 the Committee are aiding, the following numbers are employed
 either in work or educational classes, viz. :—

Men	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	23,420
Boys under 15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16,465
Women and Girls	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	40,147
Children at school for whom the Committees pay								53,199
								<u>133,231</u>

" . . . There is now an increase of employment ; but if the best
 authorities on these matters may be relied on, employment will
 greatly fluctuate during the summer ; during the autumn and
 winter, however, the whole supply of the raw material will be
 worked up by the millowners and thus give employment to the
 operatives when they will most require it. I have been un-
 remitting in my endeavours to stimulate Boards of Guardians
 and Local Committees to find manual and useful work for the
 able-bodied men whom they relieve ; and it is a gratification to
 me to state that both the Boards of Guardians and the Local
 Committees have cordially adopted my suggestions. That, how-
 ever, which would be acceptable to the workpeople, advantageous
 to the ratepayers, and serviceable to the interests of the com-
 munity at large, would be to supply the unemployed hands with
 work for wages ; they have no interest in work which they are
 forced to perform in return for parish relief or charitable aid, and
 they long for remunerative employment. I am fully aware that
 the counties of Lancaster and Chester and the towns in the
 cotton district present available and profitable resources for the
 employment of the people on public and private works of utility ;
 but hitherto no corporation, no public body, no great landed
 proprietors have attempted to convert these resources into a means
 of setting the able-bodied men to work for remunerative wages."†

* Fifteenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Board, 1862-63, p. 14.

† " " " " " Appendix, pp. 69-70.

Mr. R. Arthur Arnold, in his "History of the Cotton Famine," wrote:—

"The question of employment was now one of most serious concern. The relief committees had been from the time of their establishment utterly unable to provide manual labour for all the able-bodied men whom their funds supported and the Guardians, not unnaturally, neglected a requirement which the committees did not make. There were now some 60,000 or 70,000 girls employed in sewing schools and 20,000 men and boys being taught and teaching themselves, all of whom were accounted to be working for their relief allowances. But there were upwards of 25,000 able-bodied men and boys who were now receiving the means of subsistence without labouring in any way in return for it. The reduction observable in the numbers receiving relief was rather owing to a resumption of outdoor labour on the part of those who were accustomed to such work than to the increased production of cotton manufactures. It had been evident during the debates on the Continuance Bill, and notably in what had fallen from Lancashire members, that the subject of providing employment was one calculated to give great uneasiness to those who were best acquainted with the district and its population, large numbers having now been maintained for a whole year in virtual idleness.

It could not but be expected that this should have demoralised many, and together with this reflection came recollections of outrage and violence of which the experience of former times ominously suggested the recurrence. The labour question now rested at the bottom of the difficulty in the councils of the Government as well as in the minds of those who were locally engaged in dealing with the distress."*

On the 29th April 1863, Mr. Robert Rawlinson, C.E. (afterwards Sir Robert Rawlinson), received instructions from the Home Office to proceed to the cotton districts to inquire into the situation and into the best means of organising relief works, and to report to the Poor Law Board thereon.

The result of Mr. Rawlinson's inquiries is stated in the Sixteenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Board:—

"It soon became evident to us both from the reports of Mr. Rawlinson and a careful consideration of the local Acts in force in the principal towns of the district, that the obstacles to commencing the suggested works were of two kinds: viz., 1, Financial; 2, Legal.

"The financial difficulty consisted in the impossibility of obtaining loans at a low rate of interest.

* History of the Cotton Famine, by R. Arthur Arnold (1865), p. 249.

" The legal difficulties arose chiefly from the following circumstances, viz :—

" 1. That in some of the towns under the Local Government Act and in other towns under local Acts the borrowing powers were exhausted.

" 2. That powers were required for the execution of additional works as well as for the execution of works partly of a public and partly of a private character.

" 3. That the local authorities were not authorised to undertake works of private improvement for landowners in the neighbourhood.

" 4. That the length of the period required for the entire or partial adoption of the Local Government Act prevented works from being promptly commenced.

" 5. That Boards of Guardians, as the local authority under the Nuisance Removal Acts, possessed but very limited powers for the execution of works of sanitary improvement, and were not authorised to borrow money for that purpose.

" In order to meet the difficulties which have been enumerated, a Bill, prepared after several conferences with the Public Works Loan Commissioners, who rendered us very prompt and valuable assistance in framing some of its provisions, was introduced on the 8th of June, and received the Royal Assent on the 21st of July following.

" By this measure (the 26th and 27th Vict., c. 70), a sum of 1,200,000*l.* was placed at the disposal of the Public Works Loan Commissioners, which, in addition to certain other moneys under control, they were empowered to advance to the various local authorities in the distressed district to which the Union Relief Aid Acts apply, to enable them to execute such permanent works of the nature specified in the Act as might be approved and sanctioned by the Poor Law Board.

" The Act likewise contained important provisions for abridging very considerably the time requisite for the adoption of the Local Government Act."*

The sum assigned by the Public Works Act was that recommended by Mr. Rawlinson in a report dated May 30th, 1863 :—

" My experience in town improvement works generally and my recent inspection and inquiries in the distressed cotton district, lead me to the conclusion that one million and a half sterling may be expended in permanent improvements of a beneficial character, such as main sewerage, drainage, new reservoirs for water supply, forming and completing streets, forming suburban roads, forming parks, recreation grounds, enclosing waste lands, draining lands, cleansing and improving rivers and other similar works."†

* Sixteenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Board, 1863-64, pp. 16, 17.

† " " " " " Appendix, p. 47.

Assuming the sum of 1,500,000*l.* to be expended upon such works Mr. Rawlinson estimated the distribution of the amount as follows :—

—	Materials, &c.	Skilled Labour.	Unskilled Labour.	Plant and Superinten- dence.	Total.
	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>
Main sewers - - -	191,760	67,380	106,760	35,300	400,000
House drains - - -	72,000	25,230	39,660	13,110	150,000
Streets paved with square sets -	304,675	12,800	20,500	12,025	350,000
" " " boulders -	153,320	12,500	20,800	13,380	200,000
Waterworks, reservoirs, &c. -	12,390	10,680	21,370	5,560	50,000
Suburban roads - - -	30,000	15,000	100,000	5,000	150,000
Parks and recreation grounds -	10,000	20,000	66,666	3,334	100,000
Enclosing waste land - - -	1,000	500	2,000	500	10,000
Cleansing rivers - - -	3,500	5,500	10,000	1,000	20,000
Land drainage - - -	20,000	6,000	30,000	4,000	60,000
Baring rock - - -	Nil.	Nil.	9,000	1,000	10,000
	698,645	175,460	431,756	94,109	1,400,000
Add for land for parks and re- creation grounds.					100,000
					1,500,000

On the 20th January 1864 Mr. Rawlinson reported that applications for loans to the amount of 883,706*l.* had been granted by the Poor Law Board, that applications for 46,100*l.* were under consideration, and that intimation had been given that within the next two months applications to the amount of 494,000*l.* would be sent in to the Board.*

"No application for a loan under the provisions of this Act has been entirely rejected. In three or four cases I have felt it necessary to advise the Board to refuse some portion of the amount applied for. Three of the applications included a sum which it was intended to devote to the erection or enlargement of town halls, which, though works of 'permanent utility,' did not fulfil the requirement of being 'a sanitary improvement.' In one case it was proposed to devote a portion of a loan to the drainage of a coal mine, but deeming this a questionable improvement to the estate I advised that this portion be disallowed. In cases where the amount applied for has exceeded the estimates the surplus has been disallowed, and also where the amount applied for has exceeded the rateable value of the property assessed to the relief of the poor within the jurisdiction of the local authority making the application.

"Of the twin purposes of the Public Works Act, the execution of works of public utility and sanitary improvement and providing em-

* Sixteenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Board, 1863-64, Appendix, pp. 55, 56.

ployment for indigent factory operatives, under all circumstances, the first is the more important. At the time of the passing of the Act, with the uncertain and dangerous prospect of the autumn and winter months, great anxiety was felt as to the latter purpose. But against the employment of such large numbers as were then calculated upon many circumstances have militated, some of which, perhaps, are not now to be regretted. Chief among these must be mentioned the admirable and perfect system of relief administered so liberally and yet so wisely by the Central Relief Committee aided by 170 local committees whose action centred in and whose bounty has been mainly drawn from the Central Relief Committee. This liberal relief has spread a feeling of contentment throughout the superior classes, who by this means have been to a great extent disburdened of their responsibility, a feeling which operated prejudicially against the employment of the distressed cotton 'hands' upon the public works. This feeling does not amount to apathy in the local authorities, but it has certainly influenced their decision as to the character of works to be undertaken in their respective neighbourhoods and may have tended to prolong their deliberations.

"With reference to the character of works undertaken, the great bulk of the expenditure will be upon sewerage and street improvement works, including the formation, paving, flagging, channelling, and kerbstones of streets. Of the 883,706*l.* already ordered by the Board it is intended to expend 149,849*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.* in the former and 425,407*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.* in the latter class of works, amounting together to 575,257*l.*, or 65 per cent. of the total sum. The length of sewerage works thus undertaken is 227,083 yards, or 129 miles. The area of paving and street works undertaken in respect of the above-mentioned sum is 2,411,109 square yards, or about 500 acres, the length of streets being 234,866 yards, or 133·4 miles.

In my report dated the 30th of May 1863 I stated that "the class of works which will require the largest expenditure in material and in skilled labour will be main sewerage, house drainage, forming and paving streets, flagging footwalks, and similar works." I then referred to this class of works as affording the minimum of employment for unskilled and indigent operatives. But these street and road improvement works do include an amount of earthwork equal to about 1,000,000 cubic yards which is affording a considerable amount of employment and will afford much more for unskilled labour. In the construction of sewers a rapidly increasing number will be employed, and as a striking instance of the skill some have already acquired, I may mention that an experienced guardian lately laid before his Board a complaint that the men at work near his residence were not factory operatives, but upon inquiry it was found that he had formed an erroneous conclusion from their healthy-looking faces and from the skilful manner in which they wielded their implements. A practical instance of their superior industry upon measured work came also under my notice, where, while the men were working as "a labour test," they had earned 7-8ths of a penny per day, but within two days after the change was made from "test" to "measured work" the same men earned wages exceeding 2*s.* per day, the work being measured and priced on both occasions at the same rate.

"Considering the very defective sanitary condition of nearly all the boroughs, towns, and townships in the manufacturing districts, I cannot think it matter for regret that the local authorities have in every appli-

cation for loans to carry out public works made the interests of the property to be affected their first consideration. The peace and order of the district has been completely maintained, relief for the destitute in money, food and clothing has never been wanting, and now that it is felt the distress will soon be declining never to return again in all its recent severity, there is reason for satisfaction in the reflection that the improvement of the district rather than the employment of the operatives will have been the useful and enduring result of 'The Public Works Act.'

During the week ending 26th December 1863 the total number of men employed was 822 skilled workmen and 2,250 factory operatives, and the total amount of wages paid in the week was 2,629*l.* 15*s.* 6½*d.* To these numbers might be added upwards of 2,000 men also engaged in out-door labour, under the direction of local authorities, but whose wages were not drawn from funds furnished by the Public Works Act. There were also a considerable number indirectly employed under the Public Works Act, engaged in procuring materials furnished by contractors and needed for carrying out the public works.

On the 7th April 1864 Mr. Rawlinson reported as follows* :—

"In some places to which loans have been granted the local authorities have not yet commenced work, but, as will be seen from Table III. annexed to this Report, there are now 49 places in which works are actually progressing. With reference to employment afforded by the Act, my last monthly return, March 26th (Table III. of this Report), shows that during the last week in March there were 4,838 men directly engaged upon works, of whom 3,435 had been factory operatives, the average wages of such factory operatives amounting to about 12*s.* 6*d.* per week. Two places make no return. To these 4,838 men must be added—as previously intimated—the large number who are directly employed under the Public Works Act in obtaining and conveying materials furnished by contractors, which both experience and inquiry lead me now to estimate at not less than 3,000 additional. This makes a total of 7,838 men employed directly and indirectly and receiving payment from funds provided by the Public Works (Manufacturing Districts) Act.

"Some doubt having been thrown upon my estimate of the numbers dependent upon these men, the surveyor of one of the most important towns (Oldham), was good enough at my request to make special inquiry, when it was found that 141 men working in that borough represented 684 persons, or 4·85 each man. Adopting this estimate with reference to the numbers employed under the Public Works Act (7,838), the result would show that there are about 38,014 persons supported by means of the public works.

"The measure of the benefits of the Act are, however, but very partially represented by this statement. The public works are popular with those who are employed, and the moral effect of the work in prospect as well as in action has been very valuable in its influences upon the unemployed population.

"A number of small shopkeepers have been delivered from a condition little above the level of pauperism by the timely expenditure of large

* Sixteenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Board, 1863-64, Appendix, pp. 67-68.

sums now paid in weekly wages through the provisions of the 'Public Works Act.'

"There are more than 1,000 men (besides those I have now mentioned) engaged in outdoor labour in the towns of this district, whose wages are derived from private funds or from public funds obtained before the passing of this Act; 629 men are so employed and paid at Preston.

"This experiment in Lancashire ought to inculcate a lesson for future use, namely, that unskilled men may soon be taught the use of tools where practical means are found to furnish employment.

"The work must, however, be necessary and useful, the men must have reasonable treatment and equitable payment, if possible, by measurement. All notion of work as a punishment must be removed, and the men must be intelligently and kindly taught. Many of the Lancashire operatives who never worked outside the walls of a cotton mill before this period of distress, can now execute sewer and drain trenching in a workmanlike manner and can even lay and joint sewer and drain pipes equal to any skilled labourer.

"The men have, for the most part, striven to be useful and to escape from living on the dole of charity. More men might have been earlier at work if in every town and district there had been that diligence and willingness which the crisis demanded, but I do not think any additional external interference or assistance by Government, or even remonstrance, would have done so much as the quiet and silent force of local example has done.

"Government provided legal powers and money under certain specified and favourable conditions, but did not, in any respect, meddle or dictate as to the sort of works to be executed, other than as the Act requires, namely, that works must be locally necessary, nor has Government interfered as to the manner of executing such works. Advice has been given by myself when asked for.

"The Central Relief Committee has rendered most material assistance to the successful working of the Act. This committee has provided and distributed to distressed cotton operatives going on public works 3,000 suits of warm woollen clothing for winter wear, as also 300 pairs of stout water-tight boots for men working in water; such wise expenditure of money has encouraged men to go on the works, has enabled them to bear up against the severity of this severe winter, and, in my opinion, has prevented much sickness and misery, as also saved many lives.

"The works are generally progressing in a very satisfactory manner, and the operatives in increasing numbers are becoming skilled in the labour of carrying them out.

"The returns do not give the actual state of the works in hand. The 'skilled' and 'unskilled' men are in many cases mixed, but there are instances of town sewers and land drains being completely executed as respects trenching, timbering and earthenware pipe laying by so termed unskilled men, that is, by men who previously earned their living within the four walls of some cotton factory. Before the coming summer is far advanced I may strike out of my future reports the term 'unskilled labourers.'"

It has been maintained by critics of the action of the Poor Law Board that Mr. Rawlinson's advice was sought too late and his suggestions acted upon long after the crisis had been passed.*

* "Lancashire's Lesson," p. 107, by W. T. M. Torrens, 1864.

That the distress, although diminished, was yet abnormally widespread at the time that the Public Works Act was put in operation is apparent when we compare the numbers relieved in the week ending 18th June 1861 (47,243) with the numbers relieved in 1863-4, as stated in the first column of the following table :

NUMBERS RELIEVED AND COST OF RELIEF, 1863-4.—See also Table on p. 391.

Week ending	Relieved by Guardians or by Committees.	Relieved by Local Committees only; (average per week during the month).	Total Number Relieved.	Total Cost of Relief.
30th May 1863	169,597	128,793	298,390	£ 28,140*
27th June 1863	169,222	104,140	263,362	23,804†
31st October 1863	127,967	49,925	177,892	15,286‡
26th December 1863	133,889	57,006	190,895	16,027§
30th January 1864	144,391	69,060	213,451	19,826
30th April 1864	106,038	46,331	152,419	14,216¶
28th May 1864	92,725	32,450	125,175	9,836**
18th June 1864	88,261	32,450	120,711	9,515††

By an Act passed in July 1864 power was given to the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury to advance the sum of 350,000*l.* beyond the sum already authorized, to the Public Works Loan Commissioners and under this Act orders were issued by the Poor Law Board during the next six months for the whole sum authorized to be advanced, excepting a small balance.††

On the 7th November 1864 Mr. Rawlinson reported that the number directly employed upon the public works was 6,424. Of these only 4,002 were returned as factory operatives, but this he considered due to the fact that numbers of men, formerly factory operatives, had, through a long experience upon those public works, become skilled labourers and were unwilling to declare themselves 'factory operatives' lest the confession should be taken to invalidate their skill as labourers. He estimated the number engaged in getting stone and other materials at not less than 2,000, making a total of 8,424 who with their dependent families represented a population of from 30,000 to 40,000 persons deriving their subsistence from these works.‡‡

* Fifteenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Board, 1862-63, Appendix, p. 79.

† Sixteenth	"	"	1863-64,	"	p. 78.
‡	"	"	"	"	p. 85.
§	"	"	"	"	p. 95.
	"	"	"	"	p. 99.
¶	"	"	"	"	p. 102.
**	"	"	"	"	p. 104.
†† Seventeenth	"	"	1864-65	"	p. 67.
‡‡	"	"	"	"	pp. 14-15.
§§	"	"	"	"	Appendix, p. 30.

Mr. Rawlinson in a supplement to this report compared the conditions under which the Public Works Act was being carried out in Lancashire and those under which public works had been instituted in Ireland.*

"Public works to be executed in the distressed cotton districts by means of money to be advanced, 'lent' by Government, have been regarded with suspicion by many persons who have had experience of such works in Ireland. The loan to Lancashire appears to have been acquiesced in by many members of Parliament and others as a matter of stern necessity, sure to end in failure, and ultimately in being converted, if not wholly, at all events partially, into a loss or gift. Such was not the intention in framing the Act, nor will failure in this form be the result of the Public Works Manufacturing District Act. The reasons why failure will not take place as in Ireland may be stated as under.

"All works undertaken and executed in the distressed cotton districts are necessarily devised, planned, estimated, executed and superintended by the local authorities. The proviso as regards public bodies being that each work shall be one of 'public utility and sanitary improvement.' The entire rateable value of the property in the district is given in mortgage as security for repayment of interest at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum and the principal by equal annual instalments in 30 years. Private improvements may be effected on similar terms. It is understood that distressed cotton operatives will be employed on the works as far as is practicable, as also that such works as will offer employment to the greatest numbers of distressed operatives shall be first commenced. The amount of money loaned is not advanced in one sum but by instalments (say in tenths of the whole); before a second or any subsequent instalment is advanced application must be made to the Poor Law Board for an additional sum; with such application there must be a balance sheet produced, setting forth the details of expenditure, as also necessary plans and sections to show the progress of the works up to the date of application. The works are then inspected, the accounts investigated, and, if found satisfactory, a short report recommends the payment of a further instalment. Although the Government engineer is in no way responsible for the works, it is his duty to make inspection and to report to the Poor Law Board from time to time as to the character of the works and as to the mode of execution. Advice is freely given by the Government engineer to any local surveyor or local body who may ask for it, and frequently consultations take place and works are modified according to suggestions made on such occasions. Short general rules and instructions as to works have been printed and circulated.

"On public works in Ireland, river improvements, arterial drainage, &c., the works are entirely devised, planned, estimated and executed by Government engineers. The land and property owners, or a majority of them, consent to the works. A loan as per estimate is made by Government on security of the property to be benefited; but it has been found that in the execution of such works first estimates have been exceeded to the extent in instances of double and even threefold. Repudiation of such excess has then taken place on the plea that the owners of property mortgaged have been deceived. The mortgage, they say, was prepared upon the assumption that estimates prepared by Government engineers could be relied upon, and ought to be taken as binding in respect to the mortgage.

* Seventeenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Board, 1864-65, Appendix, pp. 32-33.

"In Ireland, local authorities, owners, and others for whom public works have been executed, have neither devised, estimated, nor superintended the execution of such works. In the distressed cotton district (Lancashire) under the Public Works (Manufacturing Districts) Acts, 1863-64, as previously stated, the works are necessarily in each case devised, estimated, executed, and superintended by the local authorities. The loan is made on security of the rates of the entire property of the district, and is advanced by instalments, but only upon satisfactory evidence of proper expenditure of the sum previously paid over for the purposes sanctioned by the Poor Law Board."

In his next Report dated January 25th, 1865, Mr. Rawlinson gave a summary of his views on the extent and cause of the successful operation of the Public Works Act* :—

"The public works in Lancashire have served to prove that willing and intelligent men can soon learn a new occupation when stern necessity forces them to it and a fair opportunity is afforded them.

"It was said previous to this great trial that cotton factory workers were entirely unfitted for any other sort of labour than that of attending to machines in heated factories or of working at the loom. It was also asserted that using the pick and the suade would ruin their hands and fingers by destroying that delicacy of touch required in manipulating cotton thread. Experience, however, teaches the contrary, and further shows that in a month or six weeks the cotton worker's hands hardened to rough out-of-door work, and breathing fresh air under the excitement of a new exercise helps to set the muscles, and speedily to strengthen both the appetite and the man's bodily frame. It must, however, be remembered that this is not true of all factory workers, but only of a portion of them, and these the best morally and physically. The public works executed in Lancashire have been in a great degree undertaken by volunteers from amongst the distressed factory operatives. That is, by men willing and wishful to escape from dependence on either the dole of charity or the taint of pauperism. The work has not been 'test work,' and yet it has proved the most effective form of test. Willing men have accepted the work so soon as it has been offered to them, and they have striven to the uttermost of their ability to earn an honest and independent living at it. Unwilling men have moved away to some other district or have managed to do without this form of labour, and thus the Local Relief Committees and the Poor Law Guardians were for the most part as effectually relieved from their presence as if they had remained at work. It will be, however, a great mistake to look on this Lancashire experiment as proving that large numbers of men may suddenly be turned from one occupation to another wholesale. This has not been accomplished in Lancashire, nor will it ever be practicable. Out of thousands of men involuntarily idle, hundreds only have had profitable work found them. This has, indeed, been brought as a charge of failure against the Public Works Act. The notion seems to have been prevalent that all the distressed men as enumerated and published in the weekly returns could and would be set to work at once on the passing of the Act, and when this was seen not to be the case a charge of 'failure' has been made. The experiment of attempting to provide labour wholesale for large numbers (whole

* Seventeenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Board, 1864-65, Appendix, pp. 36-38.

masses of men) was tried in Ireland during the years of famine and utterly failed. If any similar attempt had been made in Lancashire the failure must have been as palpable. If Government engineers had been sent down to set out works on which to find employment for all the distressed men, the best and the worst alike, there could have been no choice, no independence, no emulation, so that the incapable, the unwilling, and the idle would have leavened the entire mass. Fortunately for this Lancashire experiment, the works have been divided and subdivided so that men in small gangs could be employed and there duly mixed with skilled workmen and entirely directed by local superintendence. The list of names of places in which works have been undertaken and are in progress will show that the works are general over the entire area of the distressed cotton manufacturing district, and the reports by the several local surveyors also show that in many instances the progress of the several works has been quite as fast as it has been found possible to obtain suitable materials, stone-flags and bricks. Then in street and road works, local traffic, in some degree, controlled the numbers of streets it was possible to take possession of and shut up at one time, and in the formation of public parks, markets, cemeteries and waterworks, where there was wider scope for numbers of men being employed, negotiations as to land had to take place and then delay as to plans deferred active operations, so that this form of obstruction should not be charged to the Public Works Act. The local authorities have for the most part been in earnest in desiring to provide useful employment; and the local surveyors bear testimony to the great value of the several works undertaken, as also to the industry and good conduct of the men. I beg also to bear my testimony to the earnest and indefatigable zeal of the local surveyors in devising and setting out works, in making plans and estimates, and in teaching and in superintending the men. The Central Relief Committee have throughout rendered all the assistance required in the most prompt manner and practical form. An allowance to supplement wages for the first six weeks of training was made, with suitable warm clothing for winter wear, and waterproof boots for those men who were required to work with their feet in water. In my opinion, the public works in Lancashire have been a great success; but I also consider that all the contingencies must be taken into account. It will not be wise either to praise them extravagantly or to blame them unduly, but fairly to examine the experiment in its strength and in its weakness. The several reports by the local surveyors set forth and describe the extent and utility of the works undertaken."

In 1866 the Poor Law Board reported that in Lancashire the decrease in expenditure for the year had been at the rate of 19·4 per cent. "But notwithstanding such decrease, the total expenditure in that county has still much exceeded its former and ordinary amount. In the year ended at Lady Day 1862, the total expenditure for relief in the county was 468,430*l.*; in 1864, 856,048*l.*; in 1865, 689,707*l.* It is probable that the repayment of the loans raised to provide for the relief of the poor during the crisis of the distress in the cotton trade may for some time prevent the expenditure in that county from returning to its usual level. It is satisfactory, however, to state that the administration of relief appears to have resumed its ordinary course, and that our assent is seldom

" now required to deviations from the provisions contained in " the Out-door Relief Regulations Order."*

Mr. Rawlinson's report dated January 12th, 1866, stated that during the last nine months of 1865, the progress of works in course of execution had been somewhat retarded owing to a scarcity of skilled labour, the resumption of work in cotton mills and the difficulty of obtaining a sufficient supply of stone, bricks, paving setts, and other materials.†

" No work has been executed under the provisions of the Public Works Acts which was not desirable as a work of a permanent utility and sanitary improvement, altogether independent of the circumstances which during the existence of the cotton famine, gave rise to the special Acts of Parliament, and during the dearth of employment in this district their beneficial operation was even more signal than I was able to convey to you by report.

" It has been observed that while up to the time of the passing of the Public Works Act the district had been disturbed by suggestions of large and Imperial measures of emigration, as also by other less peaceful occurrences, subsequently to its coming into operation no other measure has been suggested as necessary or expedient, nor has disturbance or tumult troubled the peace and order of the district. The numbers of distressed factory operatives which I reported to you as being engaged upon these works, large as they were, did not convey a just idea of the total number who passed through a course of training fitting them for other out-door labour. For example, in the case of Manchester cemetery works, the largest number reported as being engaged upon these works was 130, but up to the end of last March there had been not less than 453 factory operatives so employed during varying intervals, of whom only 28 had been engaged upon more than one occasion.

" From the difficulty of obtaining accurate information, the numbers from time to time returned as being " out of work " were much exaggerated, and the numbers engaged upon the public works much more nearly represented the entire number of really able-bodied men out of employment capable of useful and practicable labour than was at the time supposed.

" I am informed, on the authority of Poor Law Officers in the district, that the prevention of pauperism by means of the public works was at least to the extent of three times the number of men employed upon them.

" These works relieved the district of direct imposture to an extent which cannot be calculated. When useful work could be tendered in place of relief, all men who would not attempt work were struck off the relief lists and were disposed of, so far as any requirement for charity was concerned.

" It is not pleasant to give such an example of the working of the Act, but it is much the best to know and to understand the truth. If makeshift works had been devised on which to place every applicant for relief at a low rate of pay, the result would have been disgraceful failure. The good and honest would have taken no interest in test labour, and the example of the idle and worthless would have influenced

* Eighteenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Board, 1865-66, p. 13.

† " " " Appendix, 42-49.

the whole mass of labour. The works devised were, however, *bonâ fide* works, and the men were, to a considerable degree, self selected, and were consequently earnest and honest workers.

"No form of labour on a large scale to be executed by untrained men alone has ever been found to be economical, whether used as a test for relief or as a punishment. During the Irish famine this was proved to be the case in that country; similar results have been developed in other countries, under other circumstances. Large masses of men, such as were thrown out of employment in Lancashire during the cotton famine, cannot be organised into efficient workers on a grand scale, as the evil influences of the worst men appear to leaven the mass, and idleness will then inevitably prevail. The gangs of labourers attempted to be organised in Lancashire before the introduction of the Public Works Act, as at Stockport, at Preston, and at some other places, proved utter failures. However little the men were paid, the work performed represented much less. Idleness soon verged into mischief, and mischief soon became actual riot.

"Under the Public Works Act, as previously stated, all the men were in a degree, volunteers; they were divided into small gangs directed by skilled men, and every possible encouragement was offered to honest industry. So soon as any gang of men wished it, they were placed on 'piece-work,' and every encouragement was given to induce self-reliance and independent action. Sewer-trenching and earthenware sewer-pipe laying required manipulative skill, but more care; the trenches had to be 'timbered,' to preserve the deep sides upright and in place; the bottom had to be formed truly in line and in gradient, so as to receive the sewer pipes, and these required to be laid so as to prevent breaking or crushing. Before three months had passed over, some of the cotton operatives, at their own solicitation, commenced this form of work, and they very speedily became to all intents and purposes 'skilled workmen.' Many of these men selected themselves into gangs, and contracted for trenching and sewerage street after street to the satisfaction of themselves, and to the entire satisfaction of their employers. The men chose to become responsible agents, and this induced interest in their work as also earnestness and care."

In conclusion Mr. Rawlinson wrote:—"The public works in Lancashire, are being gradually and rapidly brought to a close. They have afforded useful work to several thousands of earnest, sober, striving men. Many of these men have learned new occupations, and, whilst doing so, by labouring in the open air, have found that they rapidly improved in health and gained bodily strength. Some have gone back to their former occupations, some have moved into other parts of the county to find work as skilled out-of-door labourers, and others, though remaining in the district, prefer to follow their new form of occupation rather than return to the cotton mill, even when larger wages have been offered.

"The local authorities, as per agreement, have regularly paid the stipulated interest for the money advanced by Government, and in due course of time the entire amount of borrowed capital will be returned into the National Exchequer, leaving Lancashire richer by the full money value of all the works undertaken under the powers of the Public Works Acts, 1863-4, and executed in the time of her deep distress."

The following analysis of the expenditure in the more important towns and districts indicates some of the benefits which have been conferred upon these localities, as well as the skill and ability with which the several surveyors have designed and executed the works committed to their charge:—

Name of Place.	Materials.	Labour.	Team Work.	Land.	Compensation and Incidentals.	Total.
Ashton-under-Lyne	£ 29,602	£ 14,905	£ 5,471	—	£ 2,774	£ 52,752
Ashton and Staly-bridge Water-works.	3,793	15,238	879	5,000	312	25,222
Blackburn - -	46,644	33,707	7,146	—	1,965	89,462
Bolton - -	22,049	35,373	2,816	21,369	—	81,627
Burnley - -	11,627	11,432 and teamwork		129	124	23,312
Glossop - -	3,011	13,463	1,846	—	967	19,316
Macclesfield -	6,665	10,257	697	—	23	17,642
Oldham - -	26,555	30,771	8,255	16,326	3,868	85,775
Over Darwen -	7,416	5,390	716	—	620	14,142
Preston - -	22,141	18,728	3,089	718	—	44,676
Stalybridge - -	4,970	3,793	1,341	—	632	10,736
Stockport - -	13,594	10,005	1,497	7,773	1,723	34,591
Wigan - -	18,092	23,794	2,079	2,018	69	46,052
	216,159	226,886	35,831	53,353	13,076	545,305

PART VI. CONCLUDING SUMMARY.

It is easier to catalogue and describe the work of the various classes of agencies that deal with the unemployed, than to summarise in any useful form the practical conclusions that can be drawn from the review. Want of work is no new phenomenon, but many of the schemes for dealing with its results have been in existence too short a time for any but provisional judgments to be formed regarding the permanent effect of their operations. The whole problem is in an experimental stage, and all experiments which are carefully devised and fully recorded are valuable as contributions to its solution, even if they meet with little immediate success.

So far as any sound judgment can be formed on the evidence brought together in the course of this inquiry, it appears that many of the agencies described rather touch the fringe of the distress caused by want of employment than go to the heart of the evil. Many of them are useful within their own limits, and might be still more useful if duly co-ordinated. But there is yet too little attempt to map out and divide the field of work, and to assign to each agency its proper function; and the loss of power due to isolated action must be very great. More complete co-operation among the agencies in each district seems a more pressing need than the establishment of fresh institutions dealing with the unemployed.

Within their own sphere, and so far as their own members are concerned, the trade societies which make provision for their unemployed are doing a most valuable work and pursuing a policy which for the most part is sound, and which would be still more highly beneficial if it could be further extended. But the work of trade societies in this direction is at present chiefly confined to members of skilled trades, and though covering many persons employed in some of the industries (*e.g.*, iron and shipbuilding), in which the fluctuations of employment are greatest, it leaves almost untouched the mass of semi-skilled and unskilled labourers whose Unions, where they exist, do not receive sufficiently high contributions to enable them to pay out-of-work benefit, even if they desired to do so.

Labour bureaux appear in some cases to afford a valuable means of placing work-people in employment, especially as regards certain classes of occupations. They are, however, liable to be least useful when the depression in the labour market is greatest, and they are usually successful in proportion to the care taken to select applicants for registration, and thus virtually to exclude the chronically "unemployed" class, which is the crux of the problem.

Special classes of unemployed persons who, like discharged soldiers, or discharged prisoners (other than members of the criminal class), often find an initial difficulty in getting a situa-

tion by their own efforts out of proportion to the difficulty which they may afterwards find in keeping it, may be usefully dealt with by judiciously planned organisations, and some of the organisations for this purpose are highly to be commended. Those dealt with, however, form only a small per-centage of the total unemployed.

Turning from agencies for finding situations for the unemployed to those for providing work, we find that, as far as experience has yet gone, permanent labour colonies, in countries in which they have been long enough at work to enable any safe conclusion to be drawn, almost invariably tend to become receptacles for those who have suffered "inward" as well as "outward shipwreck," to use the words of the description of the German colonies published by the Central Board. They are valuable agencies for the suppression of vagabondage and the employment of vagrants and ex-prisoners, and are discharging an important function in relieving society of the presence of these classes. They do not appear, however, in any great degree to touch the effects of trade fluctuations. As Professor Mavor states in an earlier section, "the hard-working man of reputable life who seeks the colony because he is out of employment is exceedingly rare, if indeed he exists at all. The classes will not mix, to admit the one is to exclude the other." This statement appears fully borne out by the fact that 76 per cent. of the inmates of the German colonies have been imprisoned.

There is no sufficient evidence that such colonies reform any sensible proportion of their inmates, or do much more than provide for them and relieve society of their presence so long as they choose to remain at the colonies. There is an unquestionable tendency towards repeated re-admissions, and it is not clear that any large proportion of inmates are restored permanently to the ranks of self-supporting labour. This applies to the colonies which receive single men for limited periods. The Dutch system of planting families permanently in free colonies on the land is costly in character and limited in scope. It will therefore probably be thought inapplicable as a remedy for the evils of want of employment in this country. These colonies form, to use the words of Professor Mavor, "an endowed institution where a privileged few of the Dutch poor live in more or less comfortable circumstances at a cost of about 23*l.* per family per annum to the charitable societies of the country."

No English experiments in labour colonies are long enough established for their results to be safely judged, and it is as yet doubtful how far their experience will be materially different from that of the German colonies. If any further projects are started for labour colonies in this country, some disappointment will probably be avoided if it be realised at the outset that their probable tendency will be to become filled with "social wreckage" rather than with the reputable unemployed. This does not

necessarily imply that they will be failures, because it is this class (termed Class "B." by Mr. Charles Booth), *i.e.*, the class of men who are unable or unfit to guide their own lives in the competitive world, which is the most difficult to deal with effectually. How far free colonies without power of penal discipline or detention are likely to be of much use for this purpose is a matter open to doubt, and to judge from the experience of foreign experiments, promoters of such colonies would do well to limit their expectations as regards the reformatory effect of their schemes.

Temporary projects of relief work such as those started by local authorities last winter are usually intended to tide workmen over periods of seasonal slackness or special trade depression. So far as they discharge this function they obviate much suffering, at least for the time. The evidence, however, given in an earlier part of this report, based on the experience of the past winter seems to show that there is a danger lest the offer of relief work be chiefly embraced by members of the loafing and shiftless class, to the partial or total exclusion of the competent victims of trade fluctuations; for in England as in Germany these classes do not easily mix. For purposes of permanent reformation or improvement temporary relief works are not likely to be of much use.

The arrangement of the ordinary routine work of local authorities with some regard to seasonal changes, so that as far as possible such work may be performed when the demand for labour is least, may do good service in mitigating seasonal slackness in certain branches of labour. It is well, however, not to entertain exaggerated expectations of the effect which such arrangements are likely to exercise on the general labour market. The engagement of particular individuals because they want work, rather than because they are the best suited to do such work as requires to be done would form no necessary part of such schemes.

Of the historical examples given in the later sections of the report the description of parish employment under the old Poor Law shows the terrible abuses which may arise from a policy of indiscriminate employment without adequate organisation, supervision, or control. The disastrous history of the French National Works in 1848 teaches perhaps little, since the experiment was tried under very great disadvantages. Many of the difficulties, however, which arose in the course of that experiment differ rather in degree than in kind from those which were met with by many of the local authorities which organised temporary relief works during the last winter in the United Kingdom. The administration of the Public Works Act in Lancashire during the cotton famine offers an instructive example of the methods to which it may be necessary to have recourse to meet a sudden and unforeseen emergency such as fortunately does not often occur.

The meagreness of the results which either have been achieved or appear possible of achievement in the direction of permanently

assisting the unemployed, compared with the amount of effort expended upon them, may seem at first sight disappointing. It is, however, to be remembered that the problem so far as the *cure* of the effects of want of employment is concerned is essentially one of arresting decay—a process always difficult and often impossible. The matter for wonder is not that greater results have not been attained, but that those who are familiar with the difficulties of effecting the permanent reformation of a single individual prone to idleness or drink, should seriously expect by the aid of the loose organisation of a relief committee acting on imperfect knowledge, and limited in time, resources and powers, to exercise much lasting influence on the future lives of large masses of men whose want of work is often a symptom rather than a cause of the evils from which they suffer. By the time the unemployed crowd to the register of the vestry or relief-committee the mischief has, in many cases, already gone too far for remedy. The relief work with which they are provided is to many of them merely one out of the series of casual jobs by which they are accustomed to live, and when it is over they are in the same position as when it began. They have been supported for a few days, but they have not been set on their feet.

It is possible, of course, to under-rate as well as to over-rate the utility of temporary assistance. Even if those who receive it relapse shortly after into their former condition, their suffering has in many cases been mitigated for the time being. But against the advantages of all schemes for providing work for the unemployed must be set the grave danger of their tendency to become chronic, and to be looked forward to and counted on every winter; a danger on which it is unnecessary to make any comment.

The fact is that the central difficulty to be met is not so much the existence of an unemployed class, as the economic deterioration of the casually and insufficiently employed; and this is an evil which must in the main be met, if met at all, by measures of prevention rather than of cure. Any proposal which sets out with the idea that the evils resulting from want of employment are capable of immediate remedy on a large scale should for this reason be regarded with the greatest caution.

The result, then, of this inquiry is not to pronounce the problem insoluble but to suggest that any hopeful solution is less a question of remedying results than of removing causes. Here we open up questions lying outside the scope of this report. So far as inefficiency is due to imperfect knowledge of a trade, we touch the question of training; so far as it is a matter of personal or moral deterioration, questions of sanitation, and the general physical surroundings and conditions of labour are involved; so far as it is a matter of excessive trade oscillations, we verge on the wide and difficult question of the extent, if any, to which the violence of these fluctuations is due to preventible causes. Some of these questions will form the subject of future reports.

APPENDIX I.

LIST OF TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT or TRAVELLING ASSISTANCE to their Unemployed Members in 1891, with Total Amounts Paid, Number of Members Receiving Benefit (where stated), Average Amount per head of Total Membership, and per head of Members in receipt of Benefit, and other particulars with respect to the payment of Unemployed Benefits.

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unem. Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
517	Bakers and Confectioners :— Amalgamated Union of Operative Bakers and Confectioners of Great Britain and Ireland.	4,000	£ —	£ 15	—	£ s. d. 0 0 0½	£ s. d. 2 —	See p. 84.
44 I.	Dublin Operative Bakers' Trade Union.	665	1,393	—	—	2 1 10½	—	16s. per week.
38 I.	Kilkenny Operative Bakers' Trade Union.	38	54	—	9	1 8 5	6 0 0	10s. per week for 13 weeks. Must be 10 weeks in employment before being again eligible.
Unregd.	United Society of Brushmakers	1,951	1,855	—	804	1 4 4½	2 6 1½	10s. first 18 weeks, 8s. for the second, and 7s. for the next 18. Travelling money of 4d. per mile only allowed if unemployed after that date.
1	Building Trades :— Operative Bricklayers' Society	17,068	—	97	—	0 0 1½	—	See p. 45.
Unregd.	United Operative Bricklayers' Trade Accident and Burial Society.	2,198	—	14	—	0 0 1½	—	Travelling relief 1s. 6d. per day for seven days to the week. A traveller can only be relieved once in four months at the same place.
63	Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners.	34,779	17,689	—	—	0 10 2	—	See p. 41.
Unregd.	Amalgamated Carpenters and Joiners	5,558	467	—	—	0 1 8½	—	8s. per week for 16 weeks in one year (established in 1888).

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unem. Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
190	Building Trades— <i>cont.</i> General Union of Carpenters and Joiners.	2,564	2	2	—	2 s. d. 0 4 3½	2 s. d. —	10s. per week for 8 weeks. 1s. 8d. per day travelling money for 8 weeks.
91	London Wood and Tin Packing-Case Makers' Trade Society.	459	425	—	65	0 18 6½	6 10 9½	6s. to 12s. per week, according to membership, for 15 weeks.
99 I.	Belfast Packing-case Makers' Society.	55	22	—	15	0 8 0	1 9 4	10s. for 10 weeks.
446	National Amalgamated Society of Operative House and Ship Painters.	4,140	1,692	—	—	0 8 0½	—	See p. 47.
274	Woolwich Society of House Decorators and Painters.	15	4	—	1	0 5 4	2 0 0	11s. weekly for 8 weeks.
190	London Paper Stainers' Benevolent Society and Trade Union.	136	162	—	—	1 3 9½	—	10s. per week for 12 weeks. Emigration benefit, 3s. 10s. to 5s., according to length of membership.
442	Window Glass Cutters' Trade and Benefit Society.	31	9	—	—	0 5 9½	—	—
587	Glass Painters' Union	131	78	—	20	0 11 11	3 18 0	12s. per week for 10 weeks in any one year.
79	National Association of Operative Plasterers.	5,554	—	163	—	0 0 6½	—	See p. 45.
250	South London Society of Operative Plasterers.	23	31	—	—	1 6 11½	—	2s. per day in winter only.
41 I.	Belfast Operative Plasterers' Protective and Friendly Society.	180	—	15	—	0 1 8	—	Travelling benefit is 12s. 6d. to be repaid if the member returns in less than three months.
407	United Operative Plumbers' Association of Great Britain and Ireland.	5,540	—	333	898	0 1 2½	0 7 5	10s. 6d. per week travelling.
193	Amalgamated Society of Mill Sawyers and Wood-cutting Machinists.	1,505	306	—	199	0 4 0½	1 10 9	9s. per week for 13 weeks, and 4s. 6d. for a further 13 weeks.

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unemployed Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rates of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
277	Building Trades— <i>cont.</i> Bradford, Halifax and Keighley Steam Sawyers, Saw Sharpeners, Planing and Moulding Machine Workers' Society.	143	£ 104	—	27	£ s. d. 0 14 7½	£ s. d. 3 17 0½	10s. per week for three months, 5s. for a further six months, after which each case must be separately considered.
112 I.	Amalgamated Mill Sawyers and Machinemens (Belfast).	88	5	—	4	0 1 1½	1 5 0	(Now a branch of the English Society, No. 108.)
490	Amalgamated Slaters' of England	400	—	13	—	0 0 6½	—	Travelling benefit, 1d. per mile.
470	Friendly Society of Operative Stonemasons of England, Ireland, and Wales.	13,485	—	1,094	—	0 1 6½	—	Travelling benefit for 14 weeks only in the year, 6d. per day, and a bed at each relief station, with 12. and a bed for Sundays, Christmas Day and Good Friday.
585	National Association of Builders' Labourers.	3,331	3	—	23	0 0 0½	0 2 7½	—
113	Amalgamated Society of Kitchen Ranges, Hot Water and other Fitters.	273	109	—	—	0 8 0½	—	10s. per week for 10 weeks, 8s. for a further 8 weeks.
108 I.	Operative Butchers' Society (Dublin).	48	3	—	—	0 0 10	—	8s. per week for not more than two months in the year.
339	Cabinet Making and Furniture Trades— Alliance Cabinet Makers' Association.	5,380	2,084 (Includes 682 Emigration).	—	1,060	0 7 9	1 19 8½	Out-of-work support, 8s. to 14s. per week, according to contributions. Travelling allowance, 1d. per mile. Emigration, maximum, 5s.
425	Amalgamated Union of Cabinet Makers.	1,374	885	—	—	0 13 10½	—	See page 81.

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unem. Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Mem-bership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
			2	2		2 s. d.	2 s. d.	
381	Cabinet Making and Furniture Trades— <i>cont.</i>	50	16	—	8	0 6 4½	2 0 0	14s. per week. Travelling allowance, 1½d. per mile. Emigration gift, 3s. to 3½., according to length of membership.
272	Perserverance Cabinet Makers' Association.	775	144	—	—	0 3 8½	—	10s. for 8 weeks, but not more than two such periods in one year.
Unregd.	Progressive Union of Cabinet Makers.	1,380	419	—	446	0 6 3½	0 18 9½	2s. a day for 6 weeks. A member emigrating after three years' membership receives the full amount of the out-of-work benefit in a lump sum, or as much of it as he has not drawn for a year.
Unregd.	United Operative Association of Cabinet and Chair Makers of Scotland.							10s. per week for 14 weeks in one year.
486	United Trade Society of Organ Builders.	203	55	—	29	0 5 5	1 17 11½	12s. per week for 9 weeks in any one year.
104 L.	Alliance French Polishers' Society	310	445	—	—	1 8 8½	—	10s. for 6 weeks in any one year.
Unregd.	Belfast French Polishers' Trade Union.	88	10	—	8	0 3 5½	1 5 0	2s. 6d. per day for 14 weeks in any one year.
684	Amalgamated Society of Upholsterers (London). Mattress and Pillowcase Makers' Society.	225 115	136 2	— —	— 2	0 12 1 0 0 4½	— 1 0 0	9s. per week for 6 weeks in one year. Members proceeding to employment in the country can obtain from the funds a loan not exceeding £1. <i>See p. 87.</i>
Unregd.	Cigar Makers' Mutual Association	1,274	1,081 (Includes Emigration and travelling).	—	—	0 16 11½	—	

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unemployed Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
323	Clothing Trades — Amalgamated Society of Boot and Shoe Makers.	5,286	£ —	£ 122	—	£ s. d. 0 0 5½	£ s. d. — — —	See p. 76.
423	National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives.	30,046	—	467	—	0 0 4	—	See p. 77.
618	Norwich United Clickers and Rough Stuff Cutters' Mutual Benefit Society and Trade Union.	196	23	—	20	0 2 3	1 2 0	See p. 77.
414	Operative Glovers' Society.	181	24	—	—	0 3 7½	—	10s. per week.
Unregd.	Amalgamated Society of Journeymen Felt Hatters.	4,258	763	—	—	0 3 7	—	Unemployed through sickness of work, 6s. per week for 13 weeks, and 1s. for each child under 12; through fire or failure, 10s. per week for 13 weeks, and 1s. for each child.
423	Leicester and Leicestershire Amalgamated Hosiery Union.	3,287	139	—	—	0 0 8	—	10s. 6d. per week for 4 weeks, and 7s. 6d. for a further 4 weeks in 12 months.
64	Amalgamated Society of Tailors.	17,573	—	934	468	0 1 0½	1 19 11	See p. 75.
Unregd.	Scottish National Operative Tailors' Trade Protection and Benefit Society.	3,763	—	57	89	0 0 3½	0 13 9½	See p. 76.
267	Bristol Clothiers Cutters' Trade Association.	96	14	—	6	0 2 11	2 6 8	2s. each working day for 6 weeks, Travelling benefit not more than 1½d. per mile, or more than 1l. altogether.

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unemployed Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
647	Clothing Trades—cont. Leads Wholesale Clothiers' Operatives' Union.	225	£ 17	£ —	10	£ s. d. 0 1 6½	£ s. d. 1 14 0	—
688	London Clothworkers' Union	104	37	—	28	0 7 1½	1 6 5½	Amount not fixed. Committee has power to allow such benefits as the funds will admit.
741	Manchester and District Mantle and Waterproof Cutters' Society.	70	7	—	5	0 2 0	1 8 0	1st six weeks 10s. per week; 2nd six 7s.; 3rd six 2s. 6d. Apprentices half these rates.
114 L.	Londonderry Shirt, Collar, and Underclothing Cutters' Union.	73	13	—	7	0 3 3½	1 14 3½	—
Unregl.	Coach Building— United Kingdom Society of Coach-makers.	5,498	2,547	—	—	0 9 3½	—	Unemployed, 8s. per week for 8 weeks. Member of 6 years and upwards 10s. per week for 13 weeks, with half-pay afterwards for like periods. Travelling, 1s. per day for 31 days, with 6d. for a bed, afterwards reduced to 8d. per day, and 6d. for bed. 18s. per week for 3 months, 10s. for the next 3, 6s. for the next 3, and 4s. for the next 3 months.
278	London Coachmakers' Trade Union	170	180	—	—	1 1 2½	—	10s. per week for 4 weeks, and 6s. for a further 4 weeks. Apprentices half these rates.
158	Amalgamated Society of Railway Wagon and Carriage Makers, Wheelwrights, and Carpenters.	198	20	—	—	0 2 0½	—	—
607	National Amalgamated Society of Railway Wagon and Carriage Builders and Lifters.	481	104	—	—	0 4 11½	—	10s. for 6 weeks, 6s. for next six weeks, and 3s. for a further 40 weeks. Travellers allowed mileage and bed-money.
Unregl.	Wheelwrights and Blacksmiths' Society.	887	186	—	—	0 3 9½	—	—

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unem. Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
Unregd.	Coopers :— Philanthropic Coopers' Society	840	244	—	—	2 s. d. 0 5 9½	2 s. d. —	12s. per week. Emigration, from 1L. in first year to a maximum of 5L. in the ninth. Travelling allowance to a limit of 3s. in one week. Not stated in rules. Exemption from contributions during idleness provided for.
702	Amalgamated Society of Coopers	370	11	—	12	0 0 7½	0 13 4	6s., 7s., and 8s. per week for six weeks, according to length of membership. No member can receive more than 6 weeks' benefit in any one year.
Unregd.	14th Edinburgh and District Friendly and Protective Society of Journeymen Coopers.	440	222	—	122	0 10 1	1 16 4½	7s. 6d. per week for 13 weeks, members leaving Belfast in search of work receive 5s. and railway fare.
71 L.	Belfast Coopers' Society	93	2	—	3	0 0 5½	0 13 4	10s. per week for members of 3 years' standing, 9s. of 12 months, and 8s. of 3 months, for a period of 13 weeks.
43 S.	International Union of Cork Cutlers	270	205	—	—	0 15 2½	—	10s. weekly for 10 weeks.
138	Engineers :— Amalgamated Society of Stationary Engine Drivers and Stokers.	118	89	—	28	0 10 0	2 5 4½	—
317	Engineers' National Protection Association (Dewsbury).	46	26	—	—	0 11 3½	—	6s. per week for 10 weeks.
638	Amalgamated Society of Engine Drivers and Firemen (Land and Marine).	360	183	—	37	0 3 0½	1 8 7½	—
380	National Independent Protection Association of Enginemen (Worsbore' Dale).	473	20	—	31	0 2 1½	1 12 3	12s. weekly for 13 weeks, and 6s. for a further 13 weeks.

List of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—cont.

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unemployed Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
Unregd.	Female Labour Trades:— Upholsterers' Society (London) - Amalgamated Protective and Provident Society of Women Working in Trades in Oxford. London Society of Women employed in Bookbinding. Glass Making:— United Trade Protection Society of Glass Bottle Makers of Yorkshire. North of England Society of Glass Bottle Makers. National Society of Flint Glass Makers of Great Britain and Ireland.	38 79 220 2,204 260 2,123	£ 7 1 9 945 7 1,889	£ — — — — — —	— 2 — — — —	£ s. d. 0 3 8½ 0 0 3 0 0 9½ 0 8 2½ 0 0 6½ 0 18 3½	£ s. d. — 0 10 0 — — — —	7s. per week for not more than eight weeks in one year. 4s. 2d. allowance for 5 days. — 5s. for 12 weeks. 10s. per week for 13 weeks, 8s. for 13, 6s. for 26, 4s. for 26, and 4s. for 26. Any unemployed member sent to a job receives his fare and a further sum of 2s. 6d. to 6s. according to distance travelled.
Unregd.	Labour, Agricultural and General Unskilled:— National Agricultural Labourers' Union.	15,000	888 (Emigration, Migration, &c.).	—	—	0 1 1½	—	Railway fare to members only when migrating. Railway fare to any port of embarkation to members and families emigrating. When family consists of two or three children under 12 years of age, 10s. to each family; when of four or more under 12 years of age, 20s. to each family.

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unemployed Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
88	Labour, Agricultural and General Unskilled— <i>cont.</i> Amalgamated Labour League	148	£ 3 (Emigration).	£ —	—	£ s. d. 0 0 4½	£ s. d. — — —	Amount not stated in rules.
28	London and Counties Labour League.	13,000	—	—	—	0 0 0½	—	Amount not stated in rules.
121	Bristol, West of England, and South Wales Operative Trade and Provident Society.	5,021	—	6	—	0 0 0½	—	Travelling allowance, 2s. on arrival at branch to which bound, with an additional 1s. if compelled to stay over next day, 2s. extra if compelled to stay over Sunday. One relief only in any town during six months.
717	National Labour Union of Municipal and Vestry Employés.	3,377	9	—	—	0 0 0½	—	(Union dissolved July 1893.)
703	St. Helen's and District Labour Union. Leather and India Rubber Manufacture :—	52	1	—	—	0 0 4½	—	9s. per week first 8 weeks, 4s. 6d. second 8 weeks.
219	Leeds and District United Society of Tanners.	164	50	—	23	0 6 1½	2 3 5½	10s. per week for 8 weeks in any one year.
480	Fancy Leather Workers' Society	177	6	—	8	0 0 8	0 15 0	Diminishing allowance of 10s. per week for 10, 15, or 20 weeks, according to rate of contributions.
439	National Union of Life Assurance Agents.	1,179	34	—	—	0 0 7	—	See p. 20.
402	Metal Trades :— Friendly Society of Iron Founders of England, Ireland, and Wales.	15,291	15,197	—	—	0 19 10½	—	

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—cont.

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unem. Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
53 S.	Metal trades—cont. Associated Society of Iron Moulders, Scotland.	6,121	2	2	—	2 s. d. 1 4 10½	2 s. d. —	See p. 33. 10s. per week.
63 S.	Central Association of Iron Moulders, Scotland.	1,254	111	—	—	0 1 9½	—	7s. for first 8 weeks and 5s. for second 8 weeks. At expiration of 16 weeks the member must work four clear weeks before he can again receive Benefit.
246	Iron Dressers' Trade Society	1,010	556	—	—	0 11 0	—	Exemption from contributions during idleness.
715	Cast Iron Hollow Ware Turners' Friendly and Trade Society.	34	1	—	—	0 0 7	—	5s. first 13 weeks, 3s. 6d. second 13, and 2s. 6d. for the next 26 weeks.
729	Cast Iron Hollow Ware Turners' Association.	256	1	—	—	0 0 1	—	10s. per week for first 13 weeks, 5s. second 13, and 2s. 6d. per week for remainder of idleness.
53 S.	British Steel Smelters	2,917	3,671	—	1,631	1 5 2	2 5 0½	See p. 20.
424	Amalgamated Society of Engineers	71,221	55,160	—	2,233	0 15 5½	—	See p. 26.
144	Steam Engine Makers' Society	5,935	2,297	—	84	0 7 8½	—	10s. weekly for 8 weeks, 5s. for next 8 weeks, and 2s. 6d. for a further 8 weeks.
Unregd.	United Machine Workers' Association.	2,796	1,960	—	—	0 14 0½	—	See p. 28.
45 S.	United Pattern Makers' Association	2,314	1,832	—	1,014	0 15 10	1 16 1½	10s. weekly for first 13 weeks, 7s. for the next 13, and 5s. for a further 13.
396	National Amalgamated Society of General Toolmakers and Machinists.	1,200	421	—	12	0 7 0½	35 1 8	10s. per week for 14 weeks, 7s. for a further 14 weeks, and 4s. during remainder of idleness.
750	Amalgamated Society of Metal Plumbers, Shapers, Slotters, &c.	1,568	1,454	—	533	0 18 7	2 14 6½	—
640	Electrical Trades Union	1,123	48	—	14	0 0 10½	3 8 7	—

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unemployed Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Mem-ber-ship of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
578	Metal Trades— <i>cont.</i> Scientific Instrument Makers' Trade Society.	302	£ 35	—	56	£ s. d. 0 2 3½	£ s. d. 0 12 6	10s. per week for not more than 13 weeks in one year; 11s. per week for 10 weeks, and 8s. for a further 16 weeks.
Unregd.	Co-operative Society of Smiths	759	554	—	—	0 14 7½	—	7s. 6d. per week for 13 weeks, 5s. for a further 10 weeks, and 3s. until work is obtained.
3 S.	Associated Society of Blacksmiths, Scotland	2,379	660	—	537	0 5 6½	1 4 7	10s. per week for 13 weeks, and 4s. for a further 13 weeks. Travelling benefit 11s. with one week's donation pay to last for a period of 21 days.
115 I.	Dublin Smiths' United Society	38	16	—	—	0 8 5	—	6s. per week for 8 weeks. Benefit of 10s. for each branch. Travelling benefit, gift of 3s. 1d. at 1d. per mile (beginning at 6 miles) from last branch where relieved, once a day; 4s. for steamer when necessary.
542	United Kingdom Amalgamated Society of Smiths and Strikers.	1,584	—	66	—	0 0 10	—	1s. 8d. per day for 4 weeks once in 6 months. Not more than 4s. allowed in one year.
373	London Unity of Hammermen	33	8	—	6	0 4 10½	1 6 8	12s. per week for married men, 8s. for single. Travelling in search of work 10s. per week.
648	Liverpool Society of Sheet Metal Workers.	40	9	—	8	0 3 8	1 2 6	10s. per week for 13 months in one year. Emigration, 1s. to 5s. as decided by committee.
599	National Amalgamated Society of Brass Workers.	6,005	3,673	—	1,338	0 12 10½	2 17 10½	10s. per week. 10s. per week as walking money.
426	Birmingham Operative Brass Cook Founders' Trade, Sick, and Dividend Society.	40	9	—	7	0 3 8	1 5 8½	12s. per week for 8 weeks in any one year.
502	Full Society of Journeymen Brass Founders and Finishers.	138	44	—	10	0 6 4½	4 8 0	10s. per week for 13 months in one year. Emigration, 1s. to 5s. as decided by committee.
110 I.	Belast Brass Founders' Society	119	8	—	5	0 1 4½	1 12 0	10s. per week. 10s. per week as walking money.
521	London Braziers' Society	66	13	—	5	0 3 11½	2 12 0	12s. per week for 8 weeks in any one year.

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unem. Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Mem-bership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
			£	£		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
644	Metal Trades— <i>cont.</i> Association of Block Chain Makers	250	334 (Includes dispute.) 98	—	—	2 1 11	—	Unemployed members exempt from paying contributions.
393	Amalgamated Mutual Aid and Protection Society of Electro-plate Operatives.	338	—	—	—	0 5 11½	—	—
670	Manchester Society of Tinplate Workers.	436	330	—	83	0 10 6½	2 15 5	—
175	Amalgamated Society of Tinplate Workers, London.	784	129	—	57	0 3 3½	2 5 3½	—
335	General Union of Tinplate Workers	1,158	576	—	324	0 9 11½	1 15 6½	—
335	London Trade Society of Tin Canister and Tinmen.	60	31	—	8	0 10 4	3 17 6	2s. per day for 36 days.
230	London Operative Zinc Workers' Society.	73	30	—	20	0 5 5½	1 0 0	5s. 3d. and 10s. 6d. per week, according to length of membership, for not more than 13 weeks in one year.
576	National Union of Millers	1,600	193	—	122	0 2 5	1 11 7½	2s. 6d. per day for 36 days, and 1s. 3d. per day for 36 days further in six months. Travelling or emigration bonus of 10s. allowed.
289	Mining— North Yorkshire and Cleveland Miners' Association.	4,134	21	—	—	0 0 1½	—	8s. per week for not more than 8 weeks in any one year.
43	Durham Miners' Association	55,000	3,377	—	—	0 1 2½	—	Victimised members allowed 15s. per week, and 1s. 6d. per head for each child for a month.
420	Leicestershire Association of Miners	3,235	129	—	—	0 0 9½	—	10s. per week if laid idle for a week or upwards by breakage of machinery, or other similar cause of stoppage. "Victims" 10s. per week, and 1s. for each child for one month.

LIST OF TRADE UNIONS WHICH PAID OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unemployed Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
210	Mining— <i>cont.</i> Northumberland Mutual Con- federation Association of Miners.	17,368	£ 271	£ —	—	£ s. d. 0 0 3½	£ s. d. —	1s. 6d. per day for six days, and 1s. 6d. for every succeeding consecutive working day they are idle. Should they work one day in a fortnight, they shall receive pay for five days, two days in a fortnight four days pay, and three days in a fortnight, two days pay at 1s. 6d. per day. 1s. 8d. per day for first six weeks, and 1s. per day for the next six weeks.
401	Northumberland Mutual Protec- tion Association of Colliery Me- chanics.	650	29	—	—	0 0 10½	—	Travelling in search of work 10s. per week, and 1s. per head for each child under 14 years of age. 10s. per week for 6 months.
301	West Yorkshire Engine-men's Mu- tual Protection Association.	134	—	4	3	0 0 7½	1 6 8	7s. per week for 6 weeks, and 3s. 6d. per week for a further 12 weeks.
26	Durham County Mutual Aid Asso- ciation of Colliery Engine-men.	1,676	267	—	116	0 3 2½	2 6 0½	15s. per week allowed to any member losing his employment for advocating the rights of his fellow-men. Half members, 7s. 6d. per week.
496	St. Helen's Association of Colliery Engine-men.	153	27	—	14	0 3 0½	1 18 7	Accidental stoppage, 10s. per week. 7s. per week for eight weeks in a period of eight months.
183	Durham Cokemen and Labourers' Association.	3,045	48	—	—	0 0 3½	—	Printers 8s. to 12s. per week if thrown out of work by a strike or lock-out in some other branch of trade. Transferrers half these rates. 10s. per week (after six months' membership) for 26 weeks in any one year. Apprentice pro- portion to their payments. 10s. per week for eight weeks.
528	Dalton and District United Work- men's Association (Iron Mining).	2,142	254	—	419	0 2 4½	0 12 1½	
27	Pottery Trades — Printers' and Transferrers' Amal- gamated Trade Protection Society.	892	46	—	116	0 1 0½	0 7 11½	
664	Staffordshire Potteries Operative Society of Cradle Makers.	98	46	—	15	0 9 9½	3 4 0	
55 S.	Associated Stoneware Throwers	72	1	—	—	0 0 3½	—	

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—cont.

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unemployed Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
316	Printing and Bookbinding Trades :— London Society of Compositors	9,350	£ 11,138	£ —	2,031	£ 1 3 9½	£ 5 9 8½	See p. 49.
Unregd.	Typographical Association	10,262	2,367	—	—	0 4 7½	—	See p. 59.
309	Amalgamated Association of Pressmen.	401	146	—	71	0 7 4½	2 1 8½	See p. 57.
493	Printing Machine Managers' Society.	1,450	779	—	150	0 10 9	5 3 10½	See p. 55.
Unregd.	Scottish Typographical Association.	2,784	1,067	—	528	0 7 8	2 0 5	} See p. 63.
32	Edinburgh Typographical Society	757	306	—	163	0 8 1	1 17 6½	
620	Amalgamated Trade Society of Typefounders.	166	74	—	12	0 8 11	6 3 4	10s. per week for 10 weeks in any one year.
697	Printers', Joiners', and Wood-type Cutters' United Trade Society.	44	4	—	2	0 1 9½	2 0 0	—
475	Amalgamated Society of Lithographic Printers of Great Britain and Ireland.	2,502	1,315	—	430	0 10 6½	3 1 2	See p. 65.
474	National Society of Lithographic Artists, Designers, Writers, Draughtsmen, and Copperplate and Wood Engravers.	290	85	—	—	0 5 10½	—	—
295	London Society of Lithographic Printers (late Machine Minders).	800	1,531	—	212	1 19 6½	7 9 1½	12s. to 18s. for 8 to 12 weeks according to length of membership.
593	Lithographic Stone and Zinc Preparers' Society.	228	45	—	22	0 3 11½	2 0 11	8s. per week for 6 weeks.

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unem.-Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payments under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
653	Printing and Bookbinding Trades— <i>cont.</i> London Society of Litho Music Printers.	120	2	—	4	£ s. d. 0 1 6	£ s. d. 2 5 0	After one year's membership 10s. 6d. for eight weeks, two years 11s. 6d. for nine weeks, and after three years 12s. 6d. for 10 weeks. <i>See p. 68.</i>
654	Printers' and Stationers' Warehousemen, Cutters' and Assistants' Union. Caxton Association of Printers' Warehousemen.	527	124	—	38	0 4 8½	3 5 3½	10s. per week for 6 weeks, and 7s. 6d. for a further 6 weeks. No member may receive more than 5s. 6s. in 15 months. 12s. per week for 6 months, 10s. per week for second 6 months, and 8s. per week afterwards. Any member being employed while receiving according to either scale, must work 13 weeks before he can again claim full benefit. <i>See p. 67.</i>
124		127	33	—	34	0 5 0½	0 18 10	<i>See p. 66.</i>
137	United Society of Vellum and Parchment Makers of Great Britain.	74	91	—	20	1 4 7½	4 11 0	<i>See p. 68.</i>
459	Trade Society of Vellum Account Bookbinders.	842	309	—	75	0 7 4	4 2 4½	<i>See p. 66.</i>
Unreg.	London Consolidated Society of Journeyman Bookbinders.	1,270	547	—	320	0 7 11½	1 14 2½	<i>See p. 68.</i>
Unreg.	Bookbinders' and Machine Rulers' Consolidated Union.	2,621	1,073	—	—	0 8 2½	—	<i>See p. 68.</i>
30	Saddle and Harness Trades :— London Saddle and Harness Makers' Trade and Protection Society.	648	61	—	44	0 1 10½	1 7 8½	12s. per week for 6 weeks.
549	Saddlers' Harness Makers', Collar Makers', and Bridle Cutters' Union.	815	67	—	45	0 1 7½	1 9 9½	10s. per week for not more than six weeks in one year.

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unemployed Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per head.		Rates of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
3	Shipbuilding :— United Society of Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders, Sunderland and District Society of Drillers and Cutters.	36,996	13,197	—	2,073	£ s. d. 0 9 94	£ s. d. —	See p. 35.
568	London Bargebuilders' Trade Union.	145	15	—	—	0 2 04	—	—
47	Associated Society of Shipwrights.	408	53	—	39	0 2 7½	1 16 6½	1s. 8d. per day for not more than 96 days in any 18 months.
505	City of Dublin Shipwrights' Benevolent Society.	10,120	468	—	509	0 0 11½	0 19 2	See p. 37.
76 I.	Artlow Shipwrights' Society	103	—	23	35	0 5 7½	0 16 6½	(Now a branch of the Associated Society.)
86 I.	Belfast Machine and Hand Drillers' and Cutters' Society.	14	6	—	6	0 8 6½	1 0 0	—
93 I.	Textile Trades :— Mutual Defence and Provident Association of Power Loom Carpet Weavers.	90	2	—	—	0 0 5½	—	—
21	Oldham Provincial Association of Card and Blowing Room Operatives.	1,346	30 (Migration and Emigration.)	—	—	0 0 5½	—	Emigration and migration in certain states of trade, 1l. to 6s., according to destination.
464	South-east Lancashire Provincial Association of Card and Blowing Room Operatives.	10,126	1,506	—	—	0 2 11½	—	Fires, failures, breakdowns, &c., 3s. 6d., 6s. and 8s. weekly for contributions of 3d., 6d., and 9d. respectively.
674	Friendly Associated Card and Blowing Room Operatives of Mossley.	2,905	200	—	—	0 1 4½	—	—
290		1,258	98	—	170	0 1 6½	0 11 6½	In case of fire, failure, breakdown, &c., 3s. 6d. and 8s. per week for weekly contributions of 3d. and 6d. respectively.

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unemployed Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per head.		Rates of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
95	Textile Trades— <i>cont.</i> Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners, Self-actor Minders and Twirners of Lancashire and adjoining Counties.	19,662	17,910	—	—	£ s. d. 0 18 2½	£ s. d. —	See p. 69.
Unregd.	Blackburn and District Power Loom Weavers' Association.	10,800	2,968	—	—	0 5 6	—	3s., 6s., and 10s. per week according to contributions for 6 weeks only in cases of breakdowns, stoppages, &c.
429	Blackburn and District Protection Society of Power Loom Weavers.	2,384	727	—	—	0 6 1½	—	Ditto.
Unregd.	North-east Lancashire Amalgamated Society of Power Loom Weavers.	29,167	5,008	—	—	0 3 5½	—	Payments to members thrown out of work by failures, fire, &c., vary with the scale of contribution paid.
240	Blackburn District of the Amalgamated Beavers', Twisters', and Drawers' Association.	340	67	—	98	0 3 11½	0 13 8	See p. 71.
162	Oldham Association of Power Loom Overlookers.	123	95	—	27	0 15 5½	3 10 4½	See p. 70.
389	Chorley and District Power Loom Overlookers' Association.	75	12	—	—	0 3 2½	—	12s. per week for first 3 months, and 6s. for second three months.
37	Pattern Card Makers' Original Trade, Sick and Burial Society.	330	263	—	45	0 15 11½	5 16 10½	See p. 71.
396	Manchester and District Association of Warp Dressers.	110	2	—	4	0 0 4½	0 10 0	See p. 71.
445	Nelson and District Association of Warp Dressers.	453	48	—	—	0 2 1½	—	8s. first six weeks, and 4s. for a further six weeks.
245	Amalgamated Society of Operative Loom Weavers.	3,200	3,654	—	—	1 2 10	—	See p. 74.

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unemployed Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Membership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
571	Textile Trades— <i>cont.</i> Long Eaton and District Association of Operative Lace Makers. Bulwell Association of Lace Makers Carriage Straighteners' Society East London Rope-makers' Union Silk Dressers' Trade Society Amalgamated Society of Silk Pickers.	238	£	£	155	£ s. d. 0 3 3½	£ s. d. 0 5 0½	7s. per week for not more than 8 weeks in any one year. (Society now dissolved.)
655		60	21	—	41	0 7 0	0 10 3	Identical conditions with Amalgamated Lace-makers (above).
406		55	32	—	—	0 11 7½	—	—
621		144	14	—	108	0 1 11½	0 2 7	—
24		611	522	—	—	0 17 1	—	10s. per week for 13 weeks, 5s. per week afterwards.
437		237	113	—	—	0 9 6	—	Officers or delegates discharged for holding office allowed 15s. per week until employment is found. The greater part of the 1891 expenditure is believed to be distress grants.
415	Amalgamated Tape Sizers' Friendly Protection Society. Scottish United Brotherhood of Calico Printers.	126	15	—	22	0 2 4½	0 13 7½	Accidents or breakdowns, 10s. per week. Travelling 1½d. per mile, and 1s. for a bed.
S.		252	314	—	163	1 4 11	1 18 6½	12s. per week for 6 months, apprentices, 6s. Must be employed 3 months before again being entitled to benefit, and can then receive 6s. per week for 18 months.
10 I.	Flax Dressers' Trade and Benevolent Union.	1,349	105 (Emigration).	—	—	0 1 6½	—	10s. 8d. per week for 8 weeks, in any one year. Emigration maximum, 5s. 10s., to be refunded if recipient returns within 5 years.
88 I.	Irish Linen Lappers' Society	420	373 (Includes dispute).	—	—	0 17 9½	—	10s. per week for from 4 to 8 weeks according to length of membership.
34 I.	Belfast and North of Ireland Power Loom Tenders' Trade and Benevolent Union.	160	161 (Includes sick).	—	—	1 0 1½	—	10s. per week first 13 weeks, 7s. 6d. next 13, and 5s. during remainder of idleness.

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unemployed Benefit in any form in 1891 (where stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Members of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
37 I.	Textile Trades— <i>cont.</i> Belfast Power Loom Yarn Dressers' Trade Society.	100	70	—	18	2 s. d. 0 14 0	2 s. d. 3 17 9½	12s. per week first 16 weeks, 9s. second 16, and 7s. 6d. for remainder of idleness.
39 I.	Belfast Hackle and Gill Makers' Benevolent and Trade Union.	79	25	—	13	0 6 4	1 18 5½	11s. per week for first 13 weeks, 8s. 6d. per week for next 13 weeks, and 6s. per week for remainder of idleness, 1s. per week deducted for contributions. Maximum possible in one year, 20l. 9s. 6d. <i>See p. 72.</i>
393	West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association.	4,500	185	—	—	0 0 9½	—	5s. per week for 6 weeks, and 2s. 6d. for a further 6 weeks.
515	Halifax and District Association of Warp Dressers.	81	7	—	9	0 1 8½	0 15 6½	10s. 6d. per week for 13 weeks, and 6s. for a further 13 weeks.
430	Bradford Overlookers' Provident Society.	335	111	—	24	0 6 3	4 12 6	12s. per week for 14 weeks, and 6s. for remainder of idleness. <i>See p. 72.</i>
118	Halifax Card-setting Machine Tenders' Society.	179	110	—	20	0 13 3½	5 10 0	
126	Huddersfield and Dewsbury Power Loom Tenders' Mutual Improvement Association.	354	79	—	35	0 6 2½	2 5 1½	

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

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			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Mem.-bership of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
Textile Trades—cont.								
292	Bradford and District Amalgamated Society of Dyers, Crabbers, Singers, and Finishers.	1,801	£ 495	£ —	106	£ s. d. 0 4 8½	£ s. d. 4 0 2½	8s. per week for 13 weeks, and 5s. per week for next 13 weeks, after which the case is to be brought before the society.
245	Bradford Early Closing and Philanthropic Association of Pressers.	148	14	—	10	0 1 10½	1 8 0	7s. per week for 12 weeks, and 3s. 6d. per week for a further 12 weeks.
Unregd.	Leeds, Halifax, and Bradford Trade Union Society of Stuff Pressers.	543	207	—	—	0 7 4½	—	11s. per week for 26 weeks, 6s. per week for the second 26 weeks, and if still unemployed the member may be allowed not exceeding 3s. 6d. per week at discretion of committee.
5	Bradford Provident Society of Stuff Makers-up.	159	98	—	25	0 12 4	3 18 4½	10s. 6d. weekly up to a total of 22s.; afterwards 8s. until 15s. more is received, when it is reduced to 6s. per week.
471	Yeadon, Guiseley and District Trade Union.	500	1	—	—	0 0 0½	—	2s., 3s., 4s., 6s., or 8s. per week, according to scale of contributions for fires, failures, &c.
191	Huddersfield Provident Society of Warehousemen, Makers-up and Packers.	68	4	—	2	0 1 2	2 0 0	12s. per week for 3 months in any one year.
2	Warehousemen's Philanthropic Society.	107	95	—	—	0 17 9	—	8s. per week up to the amount of 12s.; a further sum of 6s. per week up to 6s., then 2s. 6d. weekly until the member finds employment.
302	Amicable Society of Woolstaplers.	54	188	—	—	3 9 7½	—	If stock held by society is less than 500s., 3s. per week; 500s. up to 1,000s., 8s.; and over 1,000s., 9s.; a member who emigrates is allowed half the amount of his share of the stock then held by the society.

LIST of TRADE UNIONS which paid OUT-OF-WORK BENEFIT, &c.—*cont.*

Registered Number.	Name of Society.	Number of Members at end of 1891.	Amount of Unemployed Benefit paid in 1891.		Number of Members receiving Unemployed Benefit in any form in 1891 (where benefit of Union stated).	Amount per Head.		Rate of Payment under Rules of Society for Unemployed, Travelling, or Emigration Benefit.
			Out of Work.	Travelling Assistance only.		Per Head of Members of Union.	Per Head of Members receiving.	
8	Transport (Land) — Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants of England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales.	22,880	£ 1,762	£ —	550	£ s. d. 0 1 2½	£ s. d. 3 4 0½	<i>Unemployed Benefit.</i> Scale A. Suspension, 18s. per week. Discharge, 12s. for first 10 weeks, 6s. for second 10 weeks. Scale B. Suspension, 12s. per week. Discharge, 10s. for first 10 weeks, 5s. for second 10 weeks. <i>Travelling Relief.</i> Scale A. First 10 weeks, 1s. 10d. per day for 5 days in week, 2s. 10d. for sixth day. Second 10 weeks, 10d. per day for 5 days, 1s. 10d. for sixth day. Scale B. First 10 weeks, 1s. 6d. per day for 5 days in week, 2s. 6d. for sixth day. Second 10 weeks, 8d. per day for 5 days, 1s. 8d. for sixth day. 15s. per week first 10 weeks, and 7s. 6d. for a further 10 weeks in case of suspension or discharge for belonging to union. 12s. per week for 12 weeks, and 6s. for a further 14 weeks. Travelling allowance 1s. per night for a bed during a period of not more than 4 weeks. Contributions of members out of employment are paid from an incidental fund. Not more than 13 weeks contributions to be paid in any one half-year.
573	General Railway Workers' Union -	12,000	113	—	42	0 0 2½	2 13 9½	
343	Associated Society of Locomotive Engineers and Firemen.	6,900	122	—	34	0 0 4½	3 11 9½	
550	Northern Counties Amalgamated Association of Tramcar and Hackney Carriage Employés.	2,424	—	5	18	0 0 0½	0 5 6½	
468.	Edinburgh and Leith Association of Cab Drivers.	800	9	—	—	0 0 7½	—	

APPENDIX II.

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(Compiled by Professor Mavor.)

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